











THE BRITISH EMPIRE SERIES

VOL. III



# BRITISH AMERICA

*WITH TWO MAPS*



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# HISTORY I

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THE  
HISTORY  
OF  
THE  
WORLD  
IN  
THE  
MIDDLE  
AGES

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## PREFATORY NOTE

THE papers comprised in these volumes were most of them given originally as lectures in the Sunday Afternoon Course at the South Place Institute, Finsbury, from 1895 to 1898, with the object of affording trustworthy information concerning the various colonies, settlements, and countries scattered over the world which go to form the whole known as "The British Empire." It was thought that a wider and deeper knowledge of the growth, present condition, and possibilities of each integral part of our Empire would tend to strengthen the sympathetic, material, and political ties which unite the colonies to the mother country.

The generous response to the invitation to lecture was very gratifying; travellers, natives, and those to whom had been given the onerous task of governing the various provinces of our Empire, vied with one another in their willingness to impart the special knowledge which they had acquired.

The lecturers were asked, when possible, to give a short account of the country prior to its incorporation, its colonial history, the effect of the British connection on the country and the natives, and the outlook for the future. To these topics were added the conditions for colonisation, of trade and commerce, the state and local government, and the laws of the country, especially

where there was any great difference from those of the United Kingdom.

The task has demonstrated the many and various interests contained in this vast subject, and has far exceeded the original limit. It is, however, hoped that the wider public to which the articles now appeal will be as sympathetic as the original audiences.

WM. SHEOWRING,  
*Hon. Sec. Institute Committee.*

SOUTH PLACE INSTITUTE,  
FINSBURY, LONDON, E.C.

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I.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA



# THE DOMINION OF CANADA

## INTRODUCTION

By J. G. COLMER, C.M.G.

RUDYARD KIPLING says of Canada:—

*“It is a great country; a country with a future. There is a fine, hard, bracing climate, the climate that puts iron and grit into men's bones, and there are all good things to be got out of the ground, if people will work for them. What it wants is more men and more money. Why don't Englishmen think more of it as a field for English capital and enterprise? Surely there is an excellent opening both for the investing and emigrating Briton there. Things don't, perhaps, move quite so fast as in the United States, but they are safer, and you are under the flag you know, and among men of the same stock and breed. Send your folks to Canada; and if they can't go themselves, let them send their money—plenty of it.”*

LORD DUFFERIN, in a speech in Canada, at the close of his office as Governor-General, said:—

*“Love your country, believe in her, honour her, work for her, live for her, die for her. Never has any people been endowed with a nobler birthright, or blessed with prospects of a fairer future. Whatever gift God has given to man is to be found within the borders of your ample territories. It is true that the zone within which your lines are cast is characterised by ruder features than those displayed in lower latitudes, and within more sunward-stretching lands, but the north has ever been the home of liberty, industry, and valour.”*

THE volumes forming the British Empire series will commend themselves to those who are interested in



making the Colonies better known than at present. Much has been done in that direction in the last few years, but the prevailing knowledge about the outlying parts of the Empire is certainly not as extensive as it might, or ought to, be. For any permanent improvement in this respect we must look largely to the education of the young. It is gratifying to know that the Colonies—their history, geography, and resources—are a more frequent subject of study in the schools than used to be the case; for it is of the highest importance that the rising generation should be taught what the British Empire really is, and what an important heritage is being handed down to them. Anything that will help the cultivation of the Imperial sentiment, or the Imperial idea, as some term it, is to be cordially welcomed, and this Canadian volume is sure to be most useful in this connection.

What must impress the student of Canadian affairs is the great progress that has been witnessed during the reign of our present Sovereign, and even in the shorter period that has elapsed since the federation of the various provinces in 1867. Little more than thirty years ago, the provinces of British North America were separate and distinct, and treated one another as independent communities. There was little or no communication between them, except in the case of Upper and Lower Canada. The Maritime Provinces were practically only accessible to the rest of British North America by water. The country to the west of Upper Canada, until British Columbia was reached, was under the control of the Hudson Bay Company, and the haunt of the Indian and the trapper. The various industries, as we now know them, were in their early stages, and development to any extent did not seem to be possible without the stimulus which federation and the acquisition of the Hudson Bay Company's Territory was to provide.

Now, the country from the Atlantic to the Pacific is under one Government, so far as the general welfare of the community is concerned, local affairs being controlled by the different provinces. There are over 17,000 miles of railway in operation, connecting the two great oceans and providing means of communication between all the provinces. There is a splendid system of canals, and vessels drawing 14 feet of water will shortly be able to proceed from the great lakes direct to the seaboard. Everything that tends to reduce the cost of the conveyance of the products of the country to markets is regarded as of the highest importance in the Dominion. The largest ocean-going vessels trade to and from its seaports. Agriculture is in a flourishing condition, and nearly 50 per cent. of the population is engaged in its development. There is still an unlimited area of land only waiting to be cultivated, to provide happy homes for millions of people. The fisheries are productive and a great source of wealth, and the 70,000 fishermen engaged in the industry form an immense reserve of naval strength. Canada contains an abundance of the chief economic minerals and of the precious metals; and its mines are becoming known all over the world. The value of the mineral products of Canada is sure to increase rapidly in the near future. Its timber wealth does not need special mention; but it is not generally recognised that Canada has, within recent years, become a great manufacturing country.

Indeed, Canada has everything that has tended to place the United Kingdom in the industrial position it now occupies, and many advantages that the mother land does not enjoy. There is plenty of timber, coal and iron, unlimited water-power, a splendid agricultural country, a fine climate, excellent means of communication, a long coast-line giving access to markets; and it is the half-way house of the Empire, standing midway

between the East and the West. It is not surprising in these circumstances that Canada has advanced along the road of prosperity by leaps and bounds, and that its people are among the happiest and most contented in the world.

The moral is the old adage, "Union is strength." The results of the federation of Canada should be an object-lesson to the other parts of the Empire, indeed to the Empire as a whole. The more closely it is united the greater will be its wealth and strength, and the power of its people for doing good. The present series of volumes is calculated to promote this most desirable consummation. So long as England regards Canada from the standpoint of Rudyard Kipling's words, and Canada lives up to Lord Dufferin's eloquent advice, the future of the Dominion will rest on the surest of foundations.

# THE DOMINION OF CANADA :

## GENERAL VIEW

BY THE RT. HON. LORD STRATHCONA AND MOUNT ROYAL

*(High Commissioner for Canada)*

Closer relations between the Mother Country and the colonies, the keynote for the development of the Empire—Canada's position in the Empire—Constitution, Federal and Provincial—Progress of Canada since Confederation—Public Works—Railways and Canals—Growth of Shipping—Banking system—Climate—Natural products of the country, and the exports of same—Immense and varied mineral resources practically untouched—The Yukon gold-fields—Forest Wealth—Fisheries—Manufacturing industries—Foreign trade of the Dominion and its distribution—Population and origins of the people—Social Economy—Indians—Immigration and the duty of directing British emigration to the British Colonies—Openings for the settler, free lands—The classes in demand.

Not only in Canada, but in all the other colonies, the feeling prevails that too little is known in the United Kingdom—the heart of the Empire—of its outlying portions, and we are all trying in every way to bring about a different state of things. It is no selfish object which has prompted us in our endeavours. We want to bring the colonies into closer relations with the mother country. We wish to develop trade between the different parts of the Empire, as well as with other countries, and we much appreciate the great services of Mr. Chamberlain in directing public attention prominently to the matter. In the colonies there are millions upon millions of acres of land only waiting to be cultivated to produce everything that man requires,



and we want to attract to those lands the surplus capital and muscle of the United Kingdom. The increase of the population of the colonies must add to their wealth and strength, and also to their productive and consuming capacities. Such results must necessarily tend to make the British Empire, of which we are all so proud, a greater factor in the progress of the world than it is even at the present time. I am glad to be able to state that those throughout the country who are entrusted with the education of the rising generation seem to appreciate, more and more every year, the importance of giving to the young idea a proper knowledge of what the British Empire is, and what it may become in the future. The following extract from the instructions to the Inspectors, issued by the English Educational Department, must have caused much gratification in all the colonies: "It is especially desirable in your examination of the fourth and higher standards, that attention should be called to the English colonies and their productions, government, and resources, and to those climatic and other conditions which render our distant possessions suitable fields for emigration and for honourable enterprise."

The Dominion of Canada includes the whole of the American Continent north of the United States, except Newfoundland, the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon belonging to France, and Alaska. It is difficult to convey an adequate conception of the vastness of a country which covers 3,456,383 square miles, and is forty times the size of England, Scotland, and Wales. It represents nearly a third of the area of the entire British Empire. It embraces the provinces of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, British Columbia, and the North-West Territories, most of them of great size and of large possibilities. They are all joined together in a practical and effective union. They



control entirely their own local affairs, while the Federal or Dominion Parliament, composed of representatives of the different provinces, deals with all matters affecting the community in general. The representative of her Majesty, styled the Governor-General, resides at Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion. The present occupant of that important position is the Right Hon. the Earl of Aberdeen,<sup>1</sup> who has identified himself with the progress and development of the country in such a way as to make him one of the most popular of Governors-General. In his work he is ably seconded by the Countess of Aberdeen, whose name is as familiar in the United Kingdom as it is in the Dominion. The provinces all have their local Parliaments, some consisting of one House and others of two, while the Lieutenant-Governors are appointed by the Governor-General in Council. The constitution of Canada is contained in what is known as the British North America Act. It defines with considerable clearness the powers of the Dominion, and of the Provincial Legislatures, and the admirable way in which it has worked speaks volumes for the care and attention devoted to its preparation. Disputes have arisen occasionally upon points of interpretation, but the decisions of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council upon such matters have always been accepted as final. It is to be hoped that before long Newfoundland may express a desire to become part of the Dominion, so that the union of British North America may be complete. If satisfactory terms can be arranged, there is no doubt that the entry of England's oldest colony will be advantageous both to itself and the Dominion.

Two years ago was the fourth centenary of the landing of the Cabots in what is now Canada, and a part of the country is well advanced in the third

<sup>1</sup> Succeeded by the Earl of Minto in the autumn of 1898.

century of its actual occupation; the formation of the Dominion only dates from 1867, and was completed, as it now stands, by the entry of Prince Edward Island in 1873. Prior to Confederation, which was originated by Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Upper and Lower Canada (now known as Ontario and Quebec), the provinces were in effect practically separate communities. There was little or no communication between them except by water. The trade exchanges were comparatively small, and their customs tariffs were arrayed against each other. Upper and Lower Canada were nominally united, but there was continual friction between them, which undoubtedly tended to prevent the development of their great resources. The population of Upper Canada was almost entirely confined to a strip of country along the shores of the St. Lawrence, and of Lake Ontario and Lake Erie. The country to the north and to the west, along the shores of Georgian Bay and Lake Superior, and to the Lake of the Woods, its present western boundary, was a *terra incognita*, practically inaccessible, and habited only by a few Indians and hunters. The fertile prairies to the west were under the administration of the Hudson Bay Company, and their only inhabitants beyond those at the Hudson Bay posts were Indians and hunters. Instead of the pleasant wheat-fields, and herds of domestic cattle, that now meet the eye in traversing that country, the plains were the *habitat* of millions of buffaloes, which have entirely disappeared. To still go farther west, at the time of Confederation, British Columbia (which became part of the Dominion in 1871) was an isolated British colony, separated from the rest of Canada, not only by its own mountains, but by nearly 2000 miles or more of intervening territory. It was only accessible at all by means of communication through the United States, and by sea. Therefore, although the union was inaugurated in 1867, and was

only nominally completed in 1873, a great deal had still to be done before it could be consummated. A commencement was made by the construction of the Inter-Colonial Railway (provided for in the Act of Union), which brought the maritime provinces into connection with Quebec and Ontario. It was completed in 1876, although much of it was in operation before that time. For many years the question of the construction of the Trans-Continental Railway was in the air, and commencements were made, but nothing tangible or effectual was done until the contract was made with the Canadian Pacific Railway Company in 1881, for the completion of the railway from Callander to the Pacific Coast within ten years. This stupendous work was practically completed in half the stipulated time, and the first public train travelled from Montreal to Vancouver in 1886. Strictly speaking, therefore, the positive, actual life of the Dominion, with all its potentialities brought within reach of the people, commenced a little more than twelve years ago.

Even now, although the population exceeds 5,250,000, only a fringe of the territory available for cultivation is inhabited. There are no very large cities in Canada, in the sense in which the term is understood in the United Kingdom and elsewhere. Montreal and Toronto, each with their populations of nearly three hundred thousand people, are the largest in Canada; but the last census (1891) shows that there were 46 cities and towns of 5000 inhabitants and upwards, of which only nine exceeded 20,000. There were also 46 towns with from 3000 to 5000 people, and 91 villages containing from 1500 to 3000 people. The urban population in 1891 was nearly 1,400,000, or 28.77 per cent. of the whole. Over 45 per cent. of the population find their means of subsistence and their opportunities for the accumulation of wealth in agriculture. Canada is proud of its sturdy yeomen

farmers. Large holdings are the exception and not the rule, and the policy of the Dominion and of the provincial governments is to encourage the immigration and settlement of small farmers. The holdings may be said to average from 100 to 300 acres.

As mentioned before, an important factor in the growth of the Dominion has been the development of railway communication. In 1868 there were only 2522 miles of railway. Now there are over 16,000<sup>1</sup> miles, and, in proportion to its population, Canada is probably as well served as any country in the world. The railways connect the Atlantic with the Pacific, they connect the coal-mines with the manufacturing and industrial centres, and they enable the products of the country to be easily conveyed from one part of the Dominion to another, and to the ports of shipment both on the Atlantic and on the Pacific. It has been the practice for railways to be constructed in advance of settlement, which has no doubt contributed, in a large degree, to the great progress the country has witnessed in recent years. Canada differs in many respects from other colonies in regard to its railway policy. The Government only own 1351 miles out of the total mileage before referred to, the balance being in the hands of public companies. Many of them have been aided by subsidies from the Dominion Parliament, from the provinces, and from the municipalities, but this assistance, as a rule, has not been in the nature of a loan, but of a gift. The country may not have had any direct return for its large expenditure upon railways, which in the case of the Dominion has amounted to \$154,000,000 (£30,800,000), exclusive of land grants, but the indirect effects of the policy have been numerous and important. The country has been bound together in the closest possible way by these railways. They have made it accessible and

<sup>1</sup> Nearly 17,000 in 1899.



available for immigration, and have led to the expansion of trade. All these results are more important, from a national standpoint, than a direct return of so much per cent. per annum.

Mention must also be made of the effect the development of the waterways has had upon the expansion of Canada. They were commenced long before railways became common. Some of them, indeed, date back to 1779, and they are all Government works. The great river St. Lawrence, up till 1858, was not navigable above Quebec for vessels drawing more than 11 feet of water. There were also obstructions higher up the river; and navigation was not possible between the great lakes in the early days, owing to the difference in the levels of those enormous sheets of water. Work upon the canals was started nearly one hundred and twenty years ago, and improvements have been going on ever since. As the result of the efforts of the Harbour Commissioners of Montreal, seconded as they have been by the Dominion Government, vessels drawing  $27\frac{1}{2}$  feet can proceed to Montreal, 1000 miles from the Atlantic Ocean, 250 miles above salt water, and nearly 100 miles above tidal water, and moor alongside the streets of the commercial metropolis of Canada, where over five miles of quays and wharfage have been provided. It is stated to be the intention of the Government to increase the channel in the near future to 30 feet. Vessels drawing 14 feet of water pass from the extreme end of Lake Superior to Kingston, and it will not be long before such vessels will be able to continue their passage, without breaking cargo, to the head of ocean navigation at Montreal, a distance of 1274 statute miles, and thence, if desired, on to Europe. The latest achievement is the canal between Lake Huron and Lake Superior, known as the Sault Ste. Marie Canal, on the line of a small boat canal made by the North-West Company a hun-

dred years ago. Formerly Canada was dependent upon the United States for the passage into Lake Superior, but the necessity of having through communication from the great lakes to the Atlantic entirely through British territory was forced upon public attention, and the money required was voted by Parliament without demur. The canal, which is over three miles long, was commenced in 1889, and completed in 1895, at a cost of nearly \$3,500,000, or £700,000, and it is much appreciated, and much used. The total expenditure on account of canals and maintenance (up to 1898) has been over \$86,000,000 (£17,200,000), of which more than \$20,000,000 were expended before confederation—\$4,000,000 by the Imperial Government, and \$16,000,000 by the provincial governments interested.

The Dominion occupies a position midway between Europe and the East, and is admirably situated for purposes of trade with the different parts of the world. She holds the fourth or fifth place among the list of ship-owning nations in the quantity of her tonnage; her coasts are excellently lighted, and there are no light-dues—a fact in which ship-owners will be much interested. It is not surprising, therefore, that successive Governments have kept before them the desirability of providing effective communication between Canada and Europe, and between Canada, Australasia, and China and Japan—in that way practically extending indefinitely the termini of the great railway systems. The first steam-driven vessel that ever crossed the Atlantic—the *Royal William*—was constructed at Quebec, and engined at Montreal in 1830–31; and the first steamer on the Pacific was the *Beaver*, built and sent out by the Hudson Bay Company, *viâ* Cape Horn, in 1835. It is the desire of the Canadian Government to provide a fast service between Canada and Great Britain which

will rival anything now crossing the Atlantic. The large subsidy of £150,000 per annum has been offered towards its establishment; and her Majesty's Government, recognising its importance, have also agreed to render material assistance. Lines of steamers are now subsidised between Canada and different ports in the United Kingdom, for summer and winter services; also to Belgium, France, and to the West Indies. On the Pacific Ocean, Canada shares with the Imperial Government the subsidy for the service to China and Japan, which has brought Yokohama within twenty-one days of London, and assists, in conjunction with two of the Australasian colonies, the line of fast steamers between British Columbia and Australia. The Pacific services, which are performed by fast vessels, equal in comfort to anything to be found on the Atlantic, are developing with great rapidity, notwithstanding the absence of direct telegraphic communication with Australasia, and with other parts of the East, and there is every probability that in the near future more frequent sailings may have to be arranged. Steam communication and trade across the Pacific are, however, in their infancy, and they can never develop with the rapidity which the interests of the countries on either side of the great ocean render practicable, until they are in direct telegraphic communication. This, and the cheapening of rates, would do more than anything else to bring Australians and Canadians closer together, and to effect that improvement in their commercial relations which must be beneficial to both parts of the Empire.

Another important factor connected with Canadian development is the excellence of the banking system. It is a matter for pride that during the crisis in the United States, and in Australasia, there was little or no financial disturbance in the Dominion. Times were bad, and Canada felt the depression as other countries

did, but during that time of trouble, while banks were failing everywhere in the United States, Canadian banks stood the test, and largely assisted to uphold the credit, the trade, and the integrity of the country. The minimum capital of Canadian banks is fixed by law, as well as the amount to be subscribed. A deposit has to be made with the Government, and a certificate of permission obtained from the Treasury Board before business can be commenced. The minimum holdings of directors are also provided for, and no dividends or bonus exceeding 8 per cent. per annum may be paid by any bank, unless, after deducting all bad and doubtful debts, it has a reserve that is equal to at least 30 per cent. of its paid-up capital. A bank is also required to hold not less than 40 per cent. of its cash reserve in Government notes; and the notes at any time in circulation must not exceed the amount of the unimpaired capital of the bank. The payment of notes issued by any bank is a first charge on its assets in case of insolvency. Every bank is obliged to pay to the Government a sum equal to 5 per cent. on the average amount of its notes in circulation, such sum to be annually adjusted. These amounts form a fund, called the Bank Circulation Redemption Fund, to be used on the suspension of any bank for the payment of the notes issued and in circulation. All the notes would bear interest at 6 per cent. per annum until redeemed, and payments from the fund are to be made without regard to the amount contributed. Happily the necessity has not arisen to draw upon this fund to any extent. Other provisions in the Act are that no bank may lend money on its own shares, or on those of any other bank, or upon mortgage of real estate, or on the security of any goods, wares, or merchandise, except as collateral security; and further, except as required for its own use, no bank may hold real estate for a longer period than seven years. As a



further security to depositors, there is a double liability attaching to the shareholders. Of the thirty-eight banks making returns to the Government, ten have head-quarters in Ontario, fourteen in Quebec, eight in Nova Scotia, three in New Brunswick, two in Prince Edward Island, and one in British Columbia. These banks have a large number of branches, and there is no lack of legitimate financial facilities in any part of Canada, although the banks are not allowed to degenerate into general mortgage and loan associations, with which we have been familiar elsewhere. In addition to the chartered banks there are the Post Office Savings-Banks, and other Government and special savings-banks, mostly used by the working-classes. The deposits in these banks have advanced from \$5,000,000 (£1,000,000) in 1868 to nearly \$64,000,000 (£12,800,000) in 1897 — which is eloquent testimony of the continual improvement in the social condition of the people. The amount of such deposits per head of the population in 1871 was \$2.96 (12s. 4d.), and \$12.33 (51s. 9d.) in 1897.

In a country like Canada, with a frontier nearly four thousand miles in length, the climate necessarily varies. But, speaking generally, the summer is hotter than in England, and the winter much colder. Canada, however, lies well within the temperate zone, and much of it is in latitudes lower than those of the United Kingdom. The country produces everything that is grown in England. Its best samples of wheat bring the highest prices on the English market. They have gained gold medals in London, in Chicago, and San Francisco. Canadian flour is also in demand, as well as its oats, barley, and peas. Canadian beef and mutton come into competition with, and I rather fancy are often sold as, best English and Scotch. Canadian apples are popular, while the cheese and bacon from Canada bring higher prices than similar

products from the United States. In addition to what may be termed the ordinary productions, grapes and peaches grow and ripen in the open air in some parts of the country, while tomatoes and melons are field crops, as are potatoes. These facts are merely mentioned at this point as showing what the spring, summer, and autumn climate of Canada really is. In Manitoba and the North-West Territories, in some parts of which the winter climate is more severe than in Eastern Canada, between two and three hundred varieties of wild flowers are found in the summer, which transform many parts of the prairies into huge flower gardens, while the smaller and delicious fruits that are cultivated here grow wild all over the country. It is supposed by some people that all work is impossible in the winter. Nothing could be further from the truth. All the industries go on much as usual, and even the Canadian farmer does the same work as his prototype in England during that season. It is true that the Canadian is not able to plough his land at that time of the year, but all the other duties of the farm require attention. Carting can be done much cheaper at that season, when wheeled vehicles are discarded for sleighs, than at any other period, and if there is a scarcity of snow the farmer is the first to complain. The winter in Canada, although cold, is a period of bright sunshine, and no one who has experienced its delights and its pleasures can fail to appreciate what a good country it is to live in. There are a large number of Canadians who annually come to the United Kingdom on business or on pleasure, but at the approach of winter they migrate to their own country. They will tell you that they prefer the dry atmosphere of Canada in the winter, with its blue skies and bright sunshine, to what they at any rate describe as the depressing and damp weather that usually prevails in England from Novem-

ber to March, if not later; and that they feel the humidity of the atmosphere much more than the far severer cold which, according to the thermometer, prevails in the Dominion. The conditions of life in Canada are so pleasant and so healthful that, but for the thermometer, it may be doubted if the people would often appreciate that they were living in the very low temperatures which that interesting instrument sometimes registers.

What I have said so far naturally paves the way for a short account of the industries of the Dominion. In Canada, as in most other countries, especially in comparatively new communities, the cultivation of the soil is of the first importance, and of the present population it may safely be said that nearly one-half are more or less connected with agriculture. According to the census of 1891, the area of improved lands in Canada was 28,527,242 acres, of which 19,904,826 acres were under crop. There were 464,462 acres in gardens and orchards, and 15,284,788 acres in pasture. The increase in lands under crop in 1891 compared with 1881 was 4,792,542 acres. Relatively to the whole area of Canada the area under crop and in pasture was about 10 per cent., so you will see that there is plenty of room left for those who wish to join us in developing our country. In Manitoba and the organised districts of Saskatchewan, Assiniboia, and Alberta, there are nearly 239,000,000 acres, of which only 7,832,000 acres have been brought into use by farmers and ranchers. There is room for much expansion in the older provinces, and the possibilities in the great west are practically illimitable. As I have already mentioned, the different provinces grow all the staple cereals and roots, vegetables, and fruits that are produced in England, and many others that are not cultivated here in the open air. Over 6000 tons of grapes are annually raised, and the wine-growing

industry is rapidly developing, while the cattle-raising and dairying industries are of exceptional importance. Not only is enough food of various kinds produced to feed its inhabitants, but large quantities are annually exported, chiefly to the United Kingdom, where Canadian produce of all kinds is becoming well known. The recent controversy on the subject of the admission of Canadian cattle into the United Kingdom will be fresh in your minds, and I only refer to it as demonstrating the importance of the trade. Notwithstanding, however, the restrictions that were imposed, the trade maintains its volume. In spite of the suspicions that were entertained of the health of the Canadian herds, not a single case of contagious disease has been discovered in the Dominion, although more than six years have passed since the Board of Agriculture called attention to the matter. Canadian cheese has now become a staple article of consumption in the United Kingdom. More cheese is imported from Canada than from all the other countries in the world which send that commodity to Great Britain, and compared with the cheese from the United States, with which it particularly comes into competition, it is invariably quoted at a higher price. In 1898, the latest year for which statistics are available, no less than 196,703,323 lbs. of cheese were shipped of the value of \$17,572,693, the whole of which came to this country. In 1868 the export was only \$600,000 (£120,000). The Canadian butter trade used to be much larger than it is at present, and the decrease is no doubt chiefly attributable to the immense expansion of the cheese trade. The Government experts, however, are impressing upon the farmers the importance of winter butter-making, and they quite expect, in the course of a few years, that the export will equal that of cheese. This seems to be rather a bold prophecy, but the experts are men whose opinions are entitled to every respect.



To show the development that has taken place in the agricultural exports of Canada, it is only necessary to say that in 1868 they were valued at \$19,000,000 (£3,800,000), while in 1898 they were \$77,365,000. No doubt the feeling is becoming prevalent in the United Kingdom that if agricultural produce must be imported, it is advantageous to the Empire that it should come from the colonies, as increased supplies from those sources must lead to the development of the colonial markets for the manufactures of the United Kingdom. In Canada the Government takes a paternal interest in the development of agriculture, and in the welfare of its farmers. There are experimental farms established in various parts of the country at the public expense, affording object lessons to the farmers, and centres where interesting experiments may be tried.

Canada, from her varied geological formation, has the reputation of being immensely rich in minerals, although their exploitation is only just commencing. An American authority has said that "to particularise the undeveloped mineral wealth of this northern land would require volumes." In Nova Scotia coal, gold, and iron are found. Gold also is worked in smaller quantities in the Province of Quebec, and there are other valuable minerals, such as iron, phosphates, and asbestos. In Ontario iron and copper are abundant, and the gold industry is expected to become an important one in the district north of Lake Superior, and in the country between that great fresh-water sea and the Lake of the Woods. Mines are being worked there now of considerable promise, and fresh discoveries are frequently reported. There are large deposits of silver also, and they can be worked at a profit even at the present prices. Coal has been discovered in the neighbourhood of Sudbury, where very large quantities of nickel also exist. If the deposits of

coal should turn out to be of a valuable nature, the discovery is bound to have most important results in the development of the Province of Ontario. In Manitoba and the North-West Territories coal is found all over the country, of qualities ranging from lignite to bituminous and anthracite; and other minerals, including iron. The rivers in the northern part of the Territories all show deposits of gold, some in sufficient quantities to make it profitable for men to work at the gravel during the summer months. But it is British Columbia which probably contains the greatest of the mineral wealth of the Dominion. Minerals of all kinds are found in the fastnesses of the three ranges of mountains which form the province, and coal of good quality, and in immense quantity, is found both on the mainland and on Vancouver Island, the latter containing the best coal on the Pacific Coast. You have all heard of the gold-mining boom in British Columbia forty years ago, when the country was practically inaccessible; and it is worth recalling that law and order were upheld there, and justice properly administered—a very different state of things from that which prevailed in the neighbouring States. In modern days, since the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway and the development of local navigation, the air has been full of rumours of what might be expected from the province. Immense deposits of silver are known to exist, and are being worked; while gold mining in Southern British Columbia, in the Kootenay district, and in Cariboo, is now attracting attention all over the world. Towns of from 3000 to 5000 people have sprung up in the last two years. American capital is pouring in for the development of the mines, and the matter is also receiving the consideration of financiers in the United Kingdom and in other countries of Europe. Mining experts, who have visited both South Africa and Western Australia, have formed opinions of

the value of the British Columbia deposits as highly favourable, to say the least, as of the deposits in those countries. It will be remembered that the mountains which in the western portion of the United States have been so prolific a source of wealth, run for many hundreds of miles through Canada. The deposits have only been exploited here and there, and if the indications they give of mineral wealth should be realised, as it is quite expected they will be, British Columbia will in the near future be known in every civilised country. The value of the mineral production of Canada in 1898, published by the Geological Survey, was \$37,757,197 (£7,551,400), including gold, \$13,700,000; silver, \$2,583,298; coal, \$8,227,958; copper, \$2,159,556; nickel, \$1,820,838; lead, \$1,206,399. Of coal the deposits are estimated to cover an area of 97,200 square miles. The pig-iron and steel industries are expanding rapidly, and, in fact, Canada is now in a fair way to derive much benefit from the bountiful stores of valuable minerals of all kinds which Providence has placed within her boundaries for the use of the world.<sup>1</sup>

Canada is the land of the forest. In all the eastern

<sup>1</sup> The discovery of the Klondike gold diggings in 1896, and the proof of the existence of gold over a large area in the Yukon district of Canada, has been of the greatest importance in attracting attention to the Dominion. The output of gold in that part for the season of 1898 is returned approximately at £2,000,000, and there is every reason to believe that enormous quantities will be obtained from these phenomenally rich placer mines during the next few years, as the country is rendered more accessible by lines of communication, and the cost of living reduced to a reasonable point. Last year over 30,000 persons crossed the coast range on their way to the gold-fields, and Dawson City, the chief centre of distribution in the district, is credited with a population of 20,000. The Lake Atlin region, in the extreme north-west corner of British Columbia, is another promising alluvial gold-field discovered in 1897 and 1898. The gravel deposits here are shallow summer diggings, but they cover a wide area, and can be worked a month earlier and a month later than the more distant Yukon gold-fields. The region can be reached from Skaguay in three days.

provinces the pleasant farms of the present day have mostly been hewn out of the virgin forest. The emigrants who go out now to the provinces of the west have little idea of the hardships that had to be endured by the early pioneers of Canada, who had to clear the land of the trees before it became available for agriculture. Immense areas of timber land still exist in all the eastern provinces, and the lumber industry is a most important one, the exports in 1898 being of the value of nearly \$27,000,000. There is an immense stretch of land in Manitoba and the North-West Territories, the fertile prairie land, unencumbered with trees, which are only to be found in clumps or along the river banks. This, of course, makes the land easily adaptable for agricultural purposes, but the settlers realise not only the climatic importance of trees, but their utility and beauty, and their efforts in planting them round their homesteads are receiving hearty support and assistance from the Government experimental farms. But even in the territories north of the great river Saskatchewan there are immense forests stretching away for hundreds of miles. In British Columbia everything is on a large scale. The province covers an area of 383,000 square miles. Its rivers are large, and so are its mountains, and it probably has some of the finest timber on the face of the globe. In the Stanley Park at Vancouver, fir and cedar trees may still be seen with a girth of from 40 to 60 feet, some distance from the ground, and British Columbia toothpicks, as they are called (timber 2 to 3 feet square and 60 feet long), are exported all over the world. The lumber industry is as important in British Columbia as it is in Eastern Canada, and the trade is rapidly developing to large dimensions. There are about 100 varieties of timber trees in Canada, the most important being the pines, spruces, firs, and cedars. But there is also a great variety of valuable



hardwood, which supplies the domestic consumption, and contributes largely to the exports. The wood-working industries are naturally extensive and important. They represent an invested capital (1891) of nearly \$100,000,000, the yearly wages paid amount to \$30,680,000 (£6,136,000), and the product is valued at \$120,415,000 (£24,083,000). The wood-pulp industry, and the export of wood for pulp-making, have come into prominence in recent years, and in the opinion of experts Canada is bound to secure, in the future, a dominant position in this business.

The immense coast line on the Atlantic and on the Pacific of at least 15,000 miles carries with it large and valuable fisheries. They provide employment for many thousands of hardy fishermen, who form a great reserve of maritime and naval strength for the Empire. Canadian codfish is well known in Europe and South America, and large quantities of other fish are also exported. At the present time it is the Atlantic fisheries which attract the greatest amount of attention; those on the Pacific are equally valuable, and are only waiting for markets to be developed. Canned salmon from the Pacific, and canned lobsters from the Atlantic, the product of the waters of the Dominion, are popular commodities in the United Kingdom. Not only are the salt-water fisheries of the Dominion extensive, but the rivers of Canada teem with fish of many kinds. Salmon and trout are found almost everywhere. The great lakes, the parts of which belonging to Canada are estimated to cover an area of 36,350 square miles, afford excellent fishing, including the exceedingly delicate white fish, and trout and salmon of the largest kinds are abundant in the rivers of the Pacific slope. During the run of salmon up the Fraser River, it is not an uncommon spectacle for the river to be so full of fish that some of them are really forced out of the water upon the banks by the pressure.

This may sound something like a fish story, but it is nevertheless quite true. The commercial value of the fisheries is nearly \$22,000,000 per annum (excluding the consumption of the Indians), they employ 70,000 men, and the capital invested in the shape of boats and nets is \$10,000,000 (£2,000,000). Since the Confederation it is stated that the fisheries have yielded no less than \$460,000,000 (£92,000,000). The yearly exports have increased from \$3,357,000 (£671,460) in 1868 to over \$10,000,000 (£2,000,000) in 1898. This important industry is also supervised with great care by the Government. It is subject to regulations and close times, and the fish hatcheries do much to replenish the in-shore fisheries. Over 125,000,000 of fry of various kinds were distributed along the shores of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and in the rivers and lakes in the year 1895. The principal commercial fish are salmon, mackerel, herring, cod, haddock, hake, pollack, halibut, smelts, sardines, white fish, trout, and oysters and lobsters.

The manufacturing industry in Canada is comparatively in its infancy, but it is rapidly becoming important, as will readily be gathered when I state that while the census of 1881 showed that the capital invested was \$165,000,000 (£33,000,000), and the men employed 254,894, in 1891 these figures had increased to \$355,000,000 (£71,000,000) and 370,256 respectively. Most of the manufactures are used to supply local consumption, but the export is not inconsiderable, being in 1895 of the value of \$26,144,376 (£5,229,000). The number of manufacturing establishments increased from 49,731 in 1881 to 75,968 in 1891, and they include everything from the button to the steam-engine. Most of the villages and towns are centres of manufactures, and the tall chimney is a frequent sight. The country is especially favourably adapted for the development of manufactures, as it pos-

sesses abundant water-power, including Niagara Falls, timber in large quantities, and most of the economic minerals, while the facilities for the importation of raw material, and for the distribution of the manufactured article, both internally and externally, are of an excellent description.

There is entire freedom of trade between the different provinces of the Dominion, an area, as already pointed out, equal in extent to the United States, and nearly as large as Europe. There are no means available of accurately estimating what may be deemed the internal, or inter-provincial, trade of Canada, but that it is immense is evidenced by the returns of the freight carried over the railways and canals, and by the statistics of the coasting trade. The imports of Canada for the year ended June 1898 were valued at \$140,323,000 (£28,065,000), as compared with \$118,000,000 (£23,600,000) in 1896, while the exports were \$164,152,000 (£32,830,000), as against \$121,000,000 (£24,200,000) in 1896. To show the development that has taken place since the formation of the Dominion, it may be added that the imports in 1868 were valued at \$73,459,000 (£14,690,000), and the exports at \$57,567,888 (£11,513,000). The trade of Canada is naturally largely with the United Kingdom and the United States. The imports from Great Britain consist chiefly of manufactured products, while the imports from the United States are either raw materials, which Great Britain does not export, or manufactured articles in which, from the force of circumstances, she is not able to compete with the great Republic. The export trade in food supplies is largely with the United Kingdom, although the United States is also a customer, but to the latter most of the exports consist of the produce of the mine, the forest, and the fisheries, much of the two first named being properly described as raw materials. Canada also has a

large and increasing trade with various countries in Europe, with South America, with China, Japan, and Australasia; and the development of her resources and the improved means of communication to which I have referred in another place, seem to indicate the possibility in the future of a great expansion in her trade. It is gratifying to the colonies to observe that there is a growing feeling everywhere in favour of closer commercial relations between the different parts of the Empire. That the members of one family should trade on slightly better terms than with outsiders does not seem an unnatural proposition, and everything points to some arrangement of the kind in the not distant future. If it is found to be practicable, which I firmly believe, it will be beneficial to the colonies and to the mother country, and add to the strength and power of the Empire.<sup>1</sup>

With regard to the people of Canada, they are, as you are aware, somewhat cosmopolitan in their origin. There are nearly 1,500,000 of what are termed French-Canadians, because many of them still speak the French language. They are descended from the 70,000 settlers who became British subjects in 1763, but although they are termed French-Canadians, Her Majesty has no more loyal subjects than the French-speaking population of the province of Quebec. The remainder of the inhabitants largely consist of those who have sprung from good British stock. There are Scotchmen—I put them first because I am one myself—Englishmen, Irishmen, and Welshmen, and many of the countries of Europe have also contributed their *quota*. During the last few generations there has been a largely increasing immigration of Germans, of Austrians, and of Scandinavians.

<sup>1</sup> Canada has given a practical proof of her desire to stimulate inter-British trade by the free concession to imports of British manufacture or origin from the mother country and certain of the British colonies and possessions of a drawback of twenty-five per cent. of the duty levied on such imports under the Canadian tariff.



They are welcomed as enterprising and energetic settlers, and their sons and daughters become as thoroughly British as those whose families have for generations been reared under the British flag. The social conditions prevailing in Canada are much the same as those of the mother country, except that there is no leisured class, and that everybody works. The system of education is largely free, and equal to that in operation in the United Kingdom. Pupils have an opportunity of obtaining a University education at a comparatively small cost. This includes natural science, and the faculty of applied science in the University of McGill, Montreal, is equal to that of any other on the Continent of America or in Europe. It is pleasing to be able to state that all the religious denominations unite together for the purpose of making education popular and effective. In no country in the world has an enterprising man a greater chance of making a success in life than in the Dominion, if he possesses the necessary qualities, and in Canada those qualities have always the chance of making their influence felt. There is no established Church, and many other questions which in England are still the subject of controversy have settled themselves long ago in Canada. The political privileges of British subjects in Canada are also of the widest character. Manhood suffrage may be said, as a general rule, to prevail; but, even in the Dominion, the franchise has not yet been extended to the ladies, although in many other respects, especially in the matter of education, they occupy a position equal to that of the other sex, and there are fewer of them unmarried. Members of Parliament are paid, and there are many opportunities for those who are so inclined to take part in political affairs in the provinces and in the Dominion. Then, again, the municipal system is managed by the people, and for the people, and it would well repay examina-

tion by those who are interested in such subjects. Those who remember the books of their childhood and early youth will know that the aboriginal inhabitants of the Dominion were the Indians, but, in the aspect which was presented to our minds long ago, these are things of the past. In Eastern Canada they engage in industrial pursuits like other people, and the franchise has been extended to them; while in the west they no longer roam at will over the country, but are engaged in agricultural operations on their reserves, under the influence of Government instructors. They are found on the farms working side by side with the pale-face. They undertake contracts for freighting, for haying, and for other work; and they supply the North-West Mounted Police with nearly all the hay that is used by that force. In fact, although their numbers cannot be said to increase, they are making much progress in the ways of civilisation, and successive Governments deserve every credit for the efforts they have made, through the medium of industrial schools and otherwise, to make the rising generation capable of taking their part in life under moderate conditions, and of obtaining their livelihood in the same manner as their white brethren. The Hudson's Bay Company deserve much credit for the way in which they administered the immense territory for so many years under their control. They treated the Indians as men, and thorough confidence existed between the officers of the Company and their protégés. It is that fact which made the transfer of the country and its people to Canada so comparatively easy a matter in 1870.

My object in inviting attention to Canada is twofold. That you would be interested in a short account of Canada, of its resources, and of its people, went, I felt sure, without saying. It occurred to me also that you would recognise that the great necessity of Canada is more people, and that you might be willing

to render us your valuable aid in that direction. There is a large emigration from the United Kingdom, a good deal of which goes outside the Empire for want of proper direction. You will gather from what I have stated that in no country can more advantages be obtained by settlers of the right classes than in Canada, and that fact alone may perhaps cause you to interest yourselves in the question. Every one is able to do something to help to disseminate information about our colonies, and to endeavour to direct the movement that takes place, so that it may remain under the British flag. In a new country, as already mentioned, there must necessarily be more openings for the young and energetic than in the older ones, but it must be borne in mind that the same qualities are necessary for success there as elsewhere. A capacity for hard work, energy, and enterprise will make themselves felt anywhere, but nowhere so rapidly, and with such great results, as in a country like the Dominion. People are sometimes sent to the colonies for their country's good—some of them do well, but many of them fail, and their want of success is not always attributed to themselves. That is not the class we want. You will, I hope, endorse my opinion that Canada is a good place to live in, and that it offers abundant advantages to people of the right stamp who will come over and throw in their lot with us; but we have no room for what may be termed the idle, the thriftless, and the ne'er-do-well portion of the population. No one need fear emigrating nowadays; formerly it was different. The present steamers are fast and comfortable, and the accommodation is regulated by law. The cost of the voyage is not great, considering the distances, and there are railways to take the emigrant right from the port of landing to his destination. The colonist cars are comfortable, and contain sleeping berths, and ample opportunity is provided of obtaining

abundance of cheap food—in fact, it may be said that modern arrangements rob emigration of all its old-time terrors: and persons who go to Canada from this country will find Government agents, to whom they can apply for advice, from the time they start until they reach their new homes, no matter in what part of the country they may be. The people who are particularly wanted in Canada are capitalists, large and small, farmers, farm labourers, and domestic servants. I suppose every country will welcome capitalists, but there are few parts of the world to which they can go with more certainty of success than in the Dominion. The conditions of life are very pleasant, and persons with small incomes will also find many advantages there. Living is cheap, there are plenty of opportunities of enjoyment, plenty of sport to be had, while, as already mentioned, the educational system offers great advantages to those who have families. In any part of the Dominion a farmer either with small or large capital can do well. He can either buy an improved farm in one of the older provinces (they are to be had at very reasonable prices), if he desires to have the social conditions and surroundings to which he has been accustomed, or he can purchase an improved farm at much less cost in Manitoba and the North-West; or take up a free grant of 160 acres of land for himself and each male member of the family over eighteen years of age. Prices of produce have been low for a long time as in England, but in Canada the expenses of a farmer are much less than in England, and the margin of profit is, therefore, greater in any circumstances. In British Columbia improved farms are also to be had, but prices are rather higher there, owing to the fertility of the soil, and to the better rates realised by its produce than in some other parts of the Dominion. Canada, of course, has its drawbacks as well as its advantages, but the latter are generally considered to



outweigh the former, which explains the expansion that is continually taking place. Although he is now getting better prices than for some years past, it would be idle to ignore the fact that the Canadian farmer has felt the depression that has been passing over the world, but at the same time the low prices have hit him less hard than farmers in many other countries. This arises from the fact that his land is cheap, taxation is low, labour-saving appliances are in constant use, he is his own landlord, and last, but not least, that he and the members of his family do their own work, and only employ such additional hands as are absolutely necessary. There is no royal road to fortune by way of agriculture in Canada, any more than elsewhere, but it is a strange circumstance to me that farmers in the old country will go on struggling against adversity, against the force of circumstances, while their capital is being frittered away, when they can go to Canada and farm there, with a smaller capital and with greater chances of success, apart altogether from the advantages they have before them in providing satisfactorily for their growing families. We have room in Canada for thousands of farmers—one might say hundreds of thousands of farmers—and I hope the time is not far distant when Canada will attract the attention its many advantages deserve. If people are doing well in Great Britain one would hesitate to advise them to move unless future considerations prompt it; but those who are contemplating emigration ought to bear in mind what a field the colonies, and especially Canada, offer to them, and the consequences that must follow their development by British hands and muscles.

Farm labourers are always in demand in Canada, although their immigration is particularly advised in the spring months. They get good wages, and if thrifty and hard-working may look forward at no distant date to becoming farmers on their own account, and

the owners of their own farms. This applies largely to single men, for the reason that cottages are not usually provided on the farms as in the old country. The single men generally live in the farmhouses, and become, as it were, a part of the family. Hundreds of instances could be given where labourers have emigrated who have been successful in the manner described, and one cannot help thinking how much better it would be for the thousands of farm labourers who, in the last few years, have migrated from the English rural districts to the towns if they had gone to Canada, instead of passing a more or less miserable existence among the congested populations which they have helped to swell. In Canada they could have turned their skill to some advantage, while in the English towns they have simply become unskilled labourers, uncertain of employment, living from day to day, and from hand to mouth. There is a great demand everywhere for female domestic servants, both in the country districts and in the towns. Their wages are generally good, although, excepting in Manitoba, the North-West Territories, and British Columbia, not higher than in London; but the homes are comfortable, and the girls seem to have more freedom and more liberty than at home. One of the difficulties Canadian ladies complain of is that their servants get married so quickly, which perhaps, however, the servants do not regard as a disadvantage. No doubt servant girls have a disinclination to travel far away from home, especially if they have to go alone, and are without friends in the places to which they may be going. This difficulty, however, is overcome to a certain extent by the supervision afforded by emigration societies in the United Kingdom, by the Government Agents, and by the Ladies' Committees which are to be found in most of the Canadian cities and towns.

There are many other matters of interest relating to Canada to which I might have referred, if there had

been sufficient space. I have endeavoured to place before the reader some of the considerations that have brought about the unity that exists at the present time between the different parts of the Dominion, the progress that recent years have witnessed, and which enables the most encouraging opinions to be formed of its future. The reader will understand that our greatest needs at the present time are more people and more capital to develop the great resources with which Canada is endowed. Canadians are proud of their country, and they believe in it. They are proud of their connection with the mother country; and their constant endeavour is to make their beloved Dominion not the least important of that family of nations, all under one flag and owning allegiance to one Sovereign, which seems to be the ultimate destiny of our Empire. Its peaceful development and the strengthening of the union of its component parts—socially, commercially, and politically—is a question than which there is none other more important that can engage the attention of British statesmen, whether in the United Kingdom or in the colonies.

# ONTARIO

BY PETER BYRNE

*(Agent for Ontario)*

ONTARIO is the principal member of that fair sisterhood of provinces which, along with several extensive territories not yet organised as provinces, constitute the Dominion of Canada. It ranks first in population and political power as well as in wealth and general development. It is upwards of 1100 miles in length and 700 in breadth, and embraces an area of 220,000 square miles. By comparison it has been found to be as large as the whole of the six New England States, together with the States of New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. It exceeds the area of the United Kingdom by nearly 100,000 square miles, and that of France by 15,000 square miles. It is also interesting to note that Ontario and France lie in almost the same latitudes, namely, between the parallels of  $42^{\circ}$  and  $52^{\circ}$  north.

The principal boundaries of Ontario are the Ottawa River and the Province of Quebec on the east, the river St. Lawrence and the great lakes and the State of Minnesota on the south and south-east, Manitoba on the west, and the Albany River and James Bay on the north.

Before the conquest of Canada by the British, Ontario was a part of "New France," which name was applied to the whole of the vast territory which came under the Union Jack as a consequence of that important event. But it was not till 1791 that it



was formed into a separate Province, under the name of Upper Canada or Canada West. The territory to the east was at the same time similarly organised under the name of Lower Canada or Canada East. The latter was at that time comparatively well settled by the French, who numbered about 100,000, and who, being guaranteed by treaty the enjoyment of their own laws, language, and religion, were content to remain in the country as British subjects. The population of Upper Canada at the same period was only about 12,000. This disparity in the respective populations of the two Provinces at that time is accounted for by Ontario being an inland country, and being rendered still more difficult of access by several formidable obstructions to the navigation of the St. Lawrence River, between Montreal and the great lakes of which it is the outlet. These obstructions consist of "rapids," which have long since been overcome by the construction of a series of canals along the route of the St. Lawrence and the Niagara. These canals have a total length of 51 miles, and are among the finest public works of the kind of which any country can boast.

Colonel Simcoe was appointed the first Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada. The first parliament of the Province was summoned to meet at Newark or Niagara, a town at the mouth of the Niagara River, in 1792. It consisted of a Legislative Council of seven members and an Assembly of sixteen members. For military reasons the seat of government was afterwards removed to Little York, now Toronto, where the second parliament met in 1797. Governor Simcoe was an able and humane administrator, and signalised his term of office by framing and causing to be passed much useful legislation, on English models, including trial by jury, and an Act for the abolition of slavery which anticipated by forty years the famous Act of the

British Parliament abolishing slavery throughout all the dependencies of the Empire.

The earliest settlers of Upper Canada were for the most part refugees from the thirteen colonies, during and after the war of American Independence. They are known in history as "United Empire Loyalists." Many of them were persons of wealth and high standing. They made great sacrifices for the sake of their loyalty to the mother country, leaving their homes and lands and going forth to establish themselves in a distant forest wilderness of which they knew little or nothing save that it was under the old flag. The British authorities received them gladly, and gave them liberal grants of land, with rations and other assistance, till they were able to produce their own crops. But they nevertheless suffered terrible hardships and privations in their early struggles with the forces of nature. However, they found before long that Upper Canada was a goodly land, with a fertile soil and salubrious climate, which would in time yield them an ample reward for their labours and perseverance. The fame of the Province as a desirable place of settlement, where free grants of land were to be had, quickly spread through the neighbouring states and the British Isles, and great numbers of emigrants soon began to arrive to help to clear the forests, to make roads, cultivate farms, erect villages and towns, and share in the rapidly-growing prosperity of the new colony.

The population of Ontario at the present time is about two and a quarter millions. It includes about 17,000 aboriginal Indians; a good many people of foreign origin, especially German and French (from Quebec Province); but the great bulk are emigrants, or the descendants of emigrants from the United Kingdom.

The Indians are a remnant of the powerful and

warlike tribes that held possession of the country before the advent of the white man. They are harmless and peaceable enough now. A portion of them have settled down to farming, and have made good homes for themselves on the land preserved for them by the Government. They have also schools and churches of their own. But too many of them still prefer a gipsy sort of life, with its squalid privations, to the rewards of regular industry and the restraints of civilised society.

By a comparison of the vast area of Ontario with its sparse population, it will be seen that only a small part of it is actually occupied by settlers. In fact, its exploration may be said to be yet incomplete. Only the year before last a new river, 300 miles in length, was discovered by a Government surveying party in the region of James Bay. The country through which it flows is covered with timber, much of which is valuable; and the soil is said to be well suited for agricultural purposes. The southern portions of the Province, where the older settlements are situated, are noted for their fertility and the rich variety and abundance of the agricultural and horticultural wealth they produce. All the ordinary farm crops are raised in perfection, besides others such as maize, which it is impossible to bring to maturity as a field crop in England. Fruit is also cultivated with great success, especially apples, pears, plums, peaches, grapes, melons, and tomatoes. The three last named, as well as the others, grow freely and come to maturity in the open air. It has been estimated that Ontario has an area suitable for grape culture at least equal to half the present area of vineyards in France. In average years grapes can be bought at a halfpenny per pound or less, peaches 2s. to 3s. per peck, and tomatoes a shilling a bushel. Strawberries and raspberries, as well as a great variety of other small

fruits, grow in great abundance in every part of the Province.

At the Chicago Exposition, where all the States of the Union competed with the Canadian Provinces, Ontario obtained by far the greatest number of awards for the excellence and variety of her fruit as well as many other exhibits.

As to climate, Ontario has a warmer summer and colder winter than Britain, but the cold is tempered by a clear, dry atmosphere, so that it causes less discomfort than the damps and fogs of winter weather in England. In Canada, snow is as welcome as the flowers in spring. Here, it no sooner falls than it is converted into slush, causing universal discomfort and disgust. In the steadier and more reliable winter season of Canada, it comes as a boon and a blessing to men, ministering alike to their convenience, their pleasure, and their profit. It makes excellent roads everywhere, along which the farmer can drive with ease and celerity heavy loads of produce to market in his winter vehicle, the sleigh. It also greatly facilitates work in the woods, which is mainly carried on in the winter season. Again, the Ontario farmer having then little to do but feed his live stock and get his year's supply of fuel from the woods, is enabled to take advantage of good sleighing to pay visits to distant friends. Young people of both sexes also find pleasure in sleigh drives, and in this way attend concerts, parties, and other social gatherings. Plenty of amusement is likewise found in skating, curling, tobogganing, and other exhilarating pastimes. When it is added that often for weeks together the winter sun shines from a clear sky, and the snow remains dry underfoot, it will be easily understood that the winter season in Canada is a time of social enjoyment and healthful recreation. Indeed nearly every person who has had experience of the two countries prefers the winter of Canada to that of



Great Britain. There are of course occasional thaws, when the snow and ice become slushy, but the Canadians protect themselves from this inconvenience by universally wearing rubber overshoes or boots. Dwelling-houses are kept warm by means of stoves or furnaces, wood being generally used as fuel in the country and hard coal in the towns.

There is but a very short spring in Ontario, the transition from ice and snow to the awakening of vegetable life being remarkably rapid.

The typical summer of Ontario is bright and warm, with occasional periods of oppressively hot or sultry weather, but with fewer wet and cloudy days than in this country. The autumn temperature, and especially the later portion of it, is usually most delightful. The glories of the Ontario landscape during this latter season, the foliage of the trees and shrubs being brilliant with rich colouring, if once seen are never forgotten.

Among the chief physical features of Ontario are the great lakes or inland seas which lie along the southern and south-western borders. These lakes, together with the St. Lawrence River, which conveys their surplus waters to the ocean, constitute the largest body of fresh water on the globe. They have considerable influence on the climate, moderating both the heat of summer and the cold of winter. The Niagara River and its world-famous Falls form another striking feature of the geography of the Province. The Niagara is a part of the long boundary line between Canada and the United States, so that the two countries share between them the ownership of the great cataract. But the principal portion of the Falls belongs to Canada, and the finest view of the sublime scene as a whole is obtained from the Canada side of the river.

Rivers and streams and lakes abound everywhere in Ontario, and manufacturing industries of various kinds are very largely carried on by water-power.

Considering the extent of the Province, there is a remarkable absence of hills of any considerable height. The surface is everywhere undulating, and where not under cultivation is wooded.

The Ontario farmers have for several years past devoted a great deal of attention to dairying and cattle-raising, and have achieved great success in both. Canada is now the largest exporter of cheese to the British markets, where it meets an ever-increasing demand at remunerative prices. This favourable state of things is largely the result of a wise policy on the part of the Ontario Government, in encouraging the formation of cheese factories and employing experts to train and instruct the farmers in the most advanced scientific methods of manufacture. A similar course of procedure is being followed with a view to improve the quality of Canadian butter. "Creameries" in charge of experts have already been established in a great many districts, in which butter of the finest quality is manufactured specially to suit the requirements of the British market. Government instructors are also employed in diffusing information throughout the rural districts by means of "travelling dairies." They give practical demonstrations to the wives and daughters of the farmers of the best methods of butter-making. By these means it is believed that before long the manufacture and export of Canadian butter may be placed on the same secure basis as Canadian cheese. The value of dairy products exported from Canada in 1896 amounted to upwards of £3,000,000 sterling.

Ontario has long been noted for its valuable herds of thoroughbred cattle, and for the enterprise of its principal breeders. All the most famous and most approved breeds are well represented, but shorthorns are the most numerous. Much attention is also bestowed on the breeding of horses, sheep, and swine,

which are largely exported; the last named in the form of bacon and hams, which have a high reputation in Britain for their excellent quality.

In order the more effectually to improve the state of agriculture in the Province, the Government many years ago established an Agricultural College, with a large experimental farm attached, for the practical education and training of farmers' sons in every branch of the business. The college has a principal and a large and efficient staff of professors to carry on the work of instruction. The pupils attend classes one half of the day, and the other half work in the fields or among the stock. For their work on the farm they are paid wages, which go towards the reduction of the fees for board and tuition. The fees are very moderate. If there are vacancies, pupils from other provinces and from the old country are occasionally admitted to the privileges of the college. Branch schools for instruction in dairying operations, and model or experimental farms, have been more recently established in other districts. The Agricultural College proper is situated near the town of Guelph, and is considered one of the most thoroughly equipped and most successful institutions of the kind on the American Continent. The important work of agricultural and horticultural education is further promoted by a great many voluntary associations, each devoted to some special subject, regarding which they collect and diffuse information for the general good. All such associations receive grants of money from the Government to aid them in carrying on their operations. Farmers' Institutes and Agricultural Societies are similarly assisted and encouraged. As might be expected, this liberal and enlightened policy has been productive of an amount of good out of all proportion to the money spent in carrying it out.

Free grants of land are allotted to settlers in some

of the back townships of Ontario on easy conditions of settlement; but as a rule emigrants are wisely advised to buy a partly-cleared farm rather than proceed to select and clear a "free grant" for themselves. "Land hunting"—that is, the searching for and taking up of a free farm—is an arduous and tedious operation, which many attempt and give up in despair. Only the pioneer who has been brought up in the back-woods, and who is consequently accustomed to such undertakings, can properly cope with the difficulties attending them. It is therefore far better for an old-country settler to purchase an "improved farm" in the older-settled districts than to face the risks and hardships of the bush. This course is especially recommended to those who have considerable capital. Such persons can generally purchase for cash, or partly on credit, a good farm agreeably situated, with house and outbuildings upon it, and within easy reach of churches, schools, and market towns, at from £8 to £15 per acre. For those possessed of but a small amount of capital, a good plan is to take a rented farm. These can be generally had on moderate terms. To persons of independent means, and with young families to educate and settle in life, Ontario offers the advantages of cheap living and cheap education. The expense of a complete collegiate or university course in Ontario is a mere fraction of what a similar training costs in England.

Lovers of hunting and fishing can find plenty of sport in Ontario. Excellent fish abound in all the rivers and lakes, and there are no restrictions. Those fond of the gun, by going far enough afield can find plenty of big game, such as the moose, the caribou, and the deer; also wolves and bears are often to be met with in the northern parts of the country.

Next to agriculture, the timber trade is the most important interest in Ontario. Many thousands of



square miles of forest still exist, from which a considerable portion of the revenue of the Province is derived, and many thousands of the population obtain their livelihood. The Crown lands are leased to "lumber men," who take out the more valuable timber for exportation and home consumption. Licences to cut and remove the timber over given areas are sold by public auction to the highest bidder. In the year 1893, 21,545 square miles of forest were under lease for lumbering purposes. During the last few years the demand for wood-pulp for paper-making has made the Ontario forests more valuable than ever, and added one more to the many important manufacturing industries carried on in the Province. The trees used for this purpose are mainly spruce and poplar.

There are few countries richer in minerals than Ontario. Besides the precious metals, there are enormous deposits of copper, iron, nickel, lead, petroleum, salt, gypsum, &c. The nickel mines of Sudbury, in the northern part of the Province, are among the largest in the world, the supply of ore being enormous. This metal has acquired a fresh importance and an enhanced value from its property, only recently discovered, of adding greatly to the strength of steel used for the making of big guns, armour plates, steam boilers, &c. This important discovery has largely increased the demand for nickel during the past few years. Gold-mining is also fast becoming a leading industry. The gold discoveries lately made in the Rainy River and other districts to the west of Lake Superior, have produced the liveliest interest not only throughout Canada, but also in mining circles in this country. Already several mines have been opened, and are now producing gold in paying quantities. The districts over which the auriferous rocks extend cover an area of many thousands of square miles. The ore is known as "free-milling"—that is, the gold can be extracted



from it comparatively easily and cheaply. This is an immense advantage, as it renders even low-grade ore, containing but a few pennyweights of gold to the ton, capable of being worked at a profit. Among the other advantages in the Ontario gold-fields are a healthy climate, an abundance of water, unlimited supplies of timber for mining and building purposes and for fuel, and cheap supplies of food. The district is also easily accessible. The vast extent of territory over which the gold-bearing rock formations extend leads to the inevitable conclusion that the ore they contain is practically inexhaustible, and thus gold-mining gives promise of becoming a permanent as well as a most valuable industry. The most recent discoveries have naturally given a great impulse to the work of exploration, testing of reefs, and the staking out of claims. There are therefore plenty of opportunities in these Ontario gold-fields for young, energetic, enterprising men, especially those with capital, and who are not afraid of the rough life of the mining camp.

Manufacturing industries of nearly every kind are carried on successfully in Ontario, and some of their products are extensively exported to this and other countries. One of the principal of these is that of musical instruments, especially organs and pianos. Several large firms are engaged in this branch of manufacture, and a considerable proportion of their output finds a market in the United Kingdom.

The Provincial Government of Ontario has exclusive jurisdiction in questions relating to property and civil rights, education, and all other matters of local concern. Matters of a general character, affecting all parts of Canada, are under the control of the Dominion or Federal Government, which has its seat at Ottawa, the capital of Canada. The Government of Ontario comprises an Executive of seven members and a Legislative Assembly for the making of laws, and having similar

power over matters assigned to it as the Imperial Parliament. There is a Lieutenant-Governor, who represents the Queen, in whose name he sanctions the bills passed by the Assembly. The Parliamentary forms and procedure are modelled on those of the Parliament of England. The Ministry hold office only so long as they enjoy the confidence of the people's representatives. The Ontario Assembly is unfettered by a Second Chamber. Members receive an allowance to cover expenses while attending to their Parliamentary duties. Manhood suffrage prevails in the Province.

The fiscal position of Ontario is perhaps unique among self-governing commonwealths. Notwithstanding the expenditure of enormous sums on the subsidising of new railways and the making of hundreds of miles of "colonisation" roads, undertaken with a view to the opening up of the country and the development of its resources, it has no public debt, but, on the contrary, possesses a considerable balance to its credit which varies but little from year to year. This has accrued from a careful and skilful management of the provincial resources during the thirty odd years which have elapsed since the "British North America Act" established Confederation and conferred self-government on the several provinces.

The provincial revenue is derived from a variety of sources, the chief of which are—(1) the fixed annual subsidy payable by the general Government to each province; (2) Crown lands; (3) succession duties; and (4) liquor and mining licences. The "death duties," which are very moderate, are levied only on rich estates, and the proceeds are applied exclusively to the maintenance of hospitals, asylums, and other institutions of a charitable or benevolent character.

The people of Ontario have long enjoyed the advantage of an efficient and well-organised system of public education, which is constantly undergoing

improvement and expansion, and upon which about one-fifth part of the provincial revenue is expended. The schools are of two grades, primary and secondary. The former correspond to the Board Schools in this country, and are called public schools; the latter are called high schools, and give an advanced English education, with science and modern languages, or prepare their pupils, if desired, for a collegiate or university course. Practically both classes of schools are free. They are regularly inspected and examined by Government Inspectors. Besides the above there are Normal Schools, Collegiate Institutes, and Model Schools for the education and training of teachers, who must undergo examinations and receive a Government certificate of fitness before being authorised to teach. The schools are governed by local boards of trustees elected by the ratepayers, and the cost of their maintenance is defrayed partly by Government grants and partly out of the rates. The general system is administered as a department of the Government, with a member of the Executive Council at its head, who has the title of Minister of Education.

The municipal system of Ontario, like that of education, is very thoroughly organised. Equally with the Parliamentary system, it is based on the principle of responsible government. It is literally a "Government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

The laws of Canada generally are much like those of the mother country. There are, however, differences of more or less importance in relation to some subjects. For example, marriage with a deceased wife's sister has long been legalised in the Dominion.

From this slight and very imperfect sketch of Ontario it will be apparent that with her superabundance of fertile soil, healthy and invigorating climate, boundless natural wealth, and free institutions, she offers great and solid advantages to enterprising and

industrious emigrants, particularly of the agricultural classes. The tenant-farmer could at once become his own landlord with the capital required simply to stock a farm in England ; and the farm-labourer may, with a few years of thrifty industry, attain to a practically independent position. The other classes to whom the Province offers great inducements are families possessed of independent, though limited, incomes. These would find cheap living, cheap education, and great facilities for starting their children in useful careers. To the British capitalist desirous of engaging in mining, manufacturing enterprises, or industrial undertakings of any kind, or of obtaining simply an increased return from investments, Ontario offers a great variety of good opportunities for the profitable use of money.

Female domestics are in much request in all parts of the Province at good wages. There is, however, no special demand at the present time for any other class of working-people who are solely dependent on their own labour for the means of subsistence.

Pamphlets containing full information regarding Ontario can be obtained on application to the Ontario Government Agency, 9 James Street, Liverpool.



# THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC

By HARRISON WATSON

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It might be considered somewhat of an anomaly that a considerable portion of a paper, forming part of a course which avowedly treats of the British Empire, should be devoted to the history of a colony under the rule of a foreign power.

The country about which I propose to speak this afternoon—the Province of Quebec—was, as everybody is doubtlessly aware, for over two hundred years a French possession. A glance at some of the main incidents of this French occupation affords the only means of explaining the reason why, after an interval of nearly a hundred and forty years, Quebec remains, both as regards its inhabitants and its institutions, to a very large extent essentially a French-Canadian province.

The space at my disposal prevents my doing anything like justice to the series of stirring struggles against terrible hardships and the many acts of personal bravery which form the earlier history of the country. To those persons who are accustomed to regard colonial history as a commonplace, if meritorious, record of commercial development and comparative statistics, the perusal of the admirable works of Francis Parkman would cause considerable surprise.

They will then understand the fascination which the quaintly romantic story of New France, with its strange blending of the old régime and the wild



influences of the great unknown land, has commenced to exercise upon a modern school of picturesque writers. It is perhaps hardly surprising that the most distinguished of these should be a Canadian, Gilbert Parker, whose works at the moment command great popularity.

The history of Canada, its gigantic failure under French rule, and its subsequent almost equal prosperity when associated with British institutions, is perhaps the best example that can be shown of the superiority of British methods of colonisation.

An almost equally remarkable object lesson is provided by the present condition of Quebec. There the descendants of the two rival powers which, under Wolfe and Montcalm, struggled at the Gibraltar of America for the supremacy of the new world, now dwell peacefully side by side, each retaining the characteristics of distinct races, but united in interests and objects.

The discoveries of Columbus and John Cabot awakened the enterprise of the French, and Jacques Cartier, a native of St. Malo, sailing through the Strait of Belle Isle and past Newfoundland—visited thirty-seven years before by Cabot—on 1st July 1534, entered a large bay, which, on account of the extreme heat of the day, he named Baie des Chaleurs. Landing at the rocky headland of Gaspé, Cartier erected a wooden cross inscribed with the lily of France, and formally took possession of the new land in the name of his master, Francis I. The following year he returned to Canada with three vessels equipped by the king, and boldly navigated the mighty St. Lawrence until he reached the river now known as St. Charles, and under the rocky promontory which was later to be crowned by the city of Quebec, found the Indian village of Stadacona. Here he dropped anchor on 7th September, and was promptly visited by the Algonquin chief,

Donnacona, accompanied by 500 of his followers. The red men received the new-comers with natural curiosity, but were friendly. Further exploration meant wintering in the unknown country, but Cartier pushed on to the foot of the tremendous rapids, where, nestling below the height to which he gave the name of Mont Royal, was discovered the Indian settlement of Hochelaga. Here, later on, was to rise the prosperous and beautiful city of Montreal. The winter turned out to be most severe, and having neither adequate clothing nor provisions, the little band suffered intensely from cold and disease, many succumbing. The remnant, when returning to France in the spring, were guilty of an act of treachery towards the Indians which laid the foundation of much future trouble. Donnacona and nine of the chiefs were captured and conveyed to France, where they were baptized into the Roman Catholic faith. A third voyage of Cartier's, in conjunction with Roberval, for the purpose of colonisation, proved unsuccessful, and fifty years later several other attempts made all ended in disaster.

The magnetic attractions of the fur-trade were principally responsible for the settlement eventually effected at Quebec or Quebio by Samuel Champlain, a man whose name is indissolubly connected with the history of Canada, for up till the end of the eighteenth century the history of Quebec is the history of Canada. Champlain was a hero of the mediæval type. To chivalric courage and romantic enterprise he added intense religious enthusiasm. Winning the confidence of the Indians, he, with their assistance, carried out successive explorations which, under the circumstances, can be regarded as little short of marvellous. His principal achievement was the discovery of the great Lakes, which he attained by ascending the Ottawa, subsequently returning down the St. Lawrence, overcoming tremendous natural obstacles, in addition to

having to undergo most terrible privations. The nominal control of New France was an association of merchants, who now early in the career of the country exhibited the fatal defects which checked its development. The pursuit of the fur-trade was their sole object of interest. As to the colonisation and development of the huge and fertile territory handed over to them by their charter, they cared absolutely nothing. Champlain's activity and enthusiasm, however, attracted assistance in other quarters, and perhaps the most noteworthy feature of the period was the inauguration of the mission work, which was to be the story of the country for the succeeding fifty years, and the advent to Canada of the Jesuit fathers, who were to play so important a part in the future of the colony. Despite Champlain's zeal and energy, New France made but feeble progress, and at his death in 1635, the entire colony consisted of but 250 persons and a few primitive houses and barricades at Quebec, and scattered huts upon the St. Lawrence.

We now reach the most romantic period in the chequered career of the struggling nation. Despite his honesty and diplomacy, Champlain had, in order to effect his purposes, been obliged to invoke the aid of the friendly Indians. The Hurons and Algonquins had even been induced to accept Christianity, although it is to be feared that the alliance of the white man rather than any spiritual benefit dictated their action. This alliance aroused the fierce resentment of other tribes, particularly the bloodthirsty Iroquois, whose fiendish cruelty was for years to come centred upon the destruction of the invaders. From the death of Champlain up to 1663, although the rule of the 100 Associates continued, the true control of the country lay in the hands of the Jesuits. For the dreadful history of that period we are mainly indebted to the quaint *relations* which the Jesuit fathers sent home

annually to the superior of the order. Even stripped of the element of the supernatural with which the almost fanatic zeal of these martyrs embellished the chronicles, the record of moral heroism and sublime self-sacrifice set forth must be almost without parallel. Often men of noble birth, education, and refinement, these pioneers of the faith, forsaking every comfort of civilisation, and exposing themselves to every danger, penetrated into the far wilderness. Heedless of the relentless war of extermination which the Indians waged, and oblivious to the horrible torture and certain death which must follow their capture, these fearless champions of Christianity doggedly forced their way through every obstacle. From Nova Scotia to Hudson's Bay and the Far West, they paddled and carried their canoes, exposed to every rigour of the climate, often wholly without food, daily undergoing almost incredible hardships. The motto of the order founded by Ignatius Loyola, "For the greater glory of God," never had more fervent exponents.

Some of the enthusiasm of the fathers extended to France, and men and women of noble birth, inspired with a desire to take part in the new crusade, proceeded to Canada. To the raising of nearly £15,000 by the Association of Our Lady of Montreal, was due the erection upon the uninhabited island of that name of a seminary, a hospital, and a college in 1642. Unfortunately, however, something more than the salvation of souls is needed to establish a prosperous colony, and the settlement made no real progress. Instead of making any efforts to assist the colonists and develop the natural resources of their possession, the association of merchants were only too eager to relegate such work to the Jesuits, who gradually began to obtain a hold upon the country in accordance with the aspirations of their order. This influence they were later on not readily inclined to cede. The next



few years were veritable years of terror for the unhappy settlers. Conciliation and gentleness held no places in the code of morality of the savages, who, only too well aware of the pitiful weakness of the white men, pursued a relentless warfare. Massacre, plague, and famine in turn assailed the miserable people. Did a man dare to go outside of the palisade to tend his struggling crops, he might be cut down by the lurking savages, or dragged off to be despatched by slow torture accompanied by the most horrible mutilation. Still the records teem with deeds of heroism, none greater than what has been called "the Thermopylæ of Canada," when Dulac des Ormeaux and sixteen young men of Montreal sacrificed their lives in the attempt to prevent the descent of a combined expedition of the Iroquois and their allies upon the three settlements of Montreal, Quebec, and Three Rivers. At the foot of the rapids of the Long Sault or Leap, the heroic little band held in check over 700 savages for five days and five nights. So deadly was the fire that they kept up against the invaders that the mortality was enormous, and although every one of the heroes perished, the Indians were so demoralised that they retired and New France was saved.

At this juncture appeared the greatest figure in the religious history of Canada, a man whose influence has descended to the present day. The Abbé Laval was a member of a princely house and devoted to the Jesuit party, whose nominee he was. The Jesuits, aware of the feeble, vacillating nature of the civil rule, apparently aspired to the dominion of the new France for which they had laboured so hard. Perhaps they had some inspired vision of a vast empire under the complete sway of the Church. Laval, a stern devotee and ascetic, brought to the country an even stronger system of ecclesiastical despotism than it had previously known. Even the weak governor resented his claims to supre-



macy, and Laval replied by an appeal to court, which not only resulted in the recall of the official, but the institution of an entirely new form of government. The charter of the company of New France was cancelled, and the power, legislative, judicial, and executive, was vested in a supreme council, consisting of the governor, the bishop, the royal *intendant* or steward, and four councillors, who, holding office for one year, were appointed jointly by the governor and bishop. Laval further had the advantage of practically choosing his own governor. Laval however, with his fixed idea of the subordination and submission of the State to the Church, was bound to defy any form of civil control, and his momentary triumph of supremacy, through the aid of the Crown, was succeeded by a period of intervention by the king and his ministers, which eventually greatly lessened the control which the Church had managed to obtain. Laval himself, later on, received the personal honour for which he long strove and schemed, that of being created the first Bishop of Quebec. The monument of his life was the establishment of the great seminary which was the foundation of the Canadian priesthood. Laval was thus the father of the Canadian Catholic Church.

The accession of Louis XIV. was followed by the brightest years in the French occupation of Quebec. Both the king and his great minister Colbert were impressed with the possibilities of a vast French empire which should rule the New World. Probably with the best of intentions was accordingly signed the edict of 1664, creating a gigantic monopoly to be called the Company of the West. It was at once decided that a properly supported attempt at colonisation should be made, and the aggressions of the native tribes checked by a severe lesson. Accordingly funds were contributed, and a large expedition of settlers, with stores and implements, accompanied by a magni-

ficent body of soldiers, the celebrated Carignan-Salières regiment, was despatched. The imposing spectacle which attended the arrival filled the colonists with joy, the savages with alarm. The fine company was larger than the colony which it came to reinforce. For a time everything went well. The veteran Tracy scoured the country and inflicted severe punishment upon the hostile Indians. Talon, a man of great administrative capacity, was appointed as *intendant*, and strove hard to promote the welfare of the people. Unfortunately the gigantic monopoly given to the Company of the West bound the colonists hand and foot, and stifled all independence of trade, which was again placed entirely at the mercy of a league of merchants. Louis, in making radical changes in Canada, and inaugurating the executive machinery which was to last down to the end of the French occupation, had actually broken no new ground. The relics of the provincial feudal system were not destined to flourish upon Canadian soil. There, as in the French provinces, the governor was superior in rank to the steward. He commanded the troops, conducted foreign relations, and took precedence on occasions of ceremony. The *intendant*, usually of the legal class, controlled finance and general administration. He was required to send home long and minute reports of all occurrences, and was really a spy upon the governor. The idea was that each should be a check upon the other—the reality, that they became natural enemies, and their feuds often reached a condition which jeopardised the very existence of the country. The council issued decrees for the civil, commercial, and financial government of the colony, and for criminal causes according to the royal ordinance and the so-called “custom of Paris.” Thereby was inaugurated the system of civil justice which prevails in Quebec up to the present day.

Talon, although cramped by elaborate instructions, was the very man to galvanise the moribund colony into life. He inaugurated a general scheme of development. The proper cultivation of the land was encouraged, and trade in the natural resources developed. Roads were opened, explorations started, fortifications erected. The king sent out shipments of emigrants with supplies of goods and cattle. Even the soldiers were induced to remain as colonists, and to every man was promised a grant of land and fifty livres in money. This military colonisation was to have a lasting influence upon the settlement of the Province. The names of the "Carignan-Salières" regiment are handed down in the geography of the banks of the Richelieu and St. Lawrence. Nearly all the towns or villages still bear the names of the members of the corps.

The number of male settlers increased by leaps and bounds, but now was encountered an obstacle that is always a stumbling-block in new countries. If the colony was to grow from within, the settlers must have wives. The Sulpicians had already sent out women for the needs of Montreal. The king continued the work. Large drafts were collected from the houses of refuge in the cities. As they were often unsuited for rough work, the demand arose for strong, healthy, country girls. Squads of these were secured and snapped up upon arrival. Even a few ladies of gentle birth were sent out for the officers and *noblesse*. The accounts of these matrimonial transactions furnish amusing reading. The marriage bazaar was divided into three classes, and there were brides to suit all tastes. The prospective Benedick applied to the directors, stated his means of livelihood and his possessions, and then made his selection. It is but fair to state that the ladies were accorded the usual privilege of rejecting any applicant who displeased them. Marriage was solemnised forthwith with the assistance of a priest

and a notary, and the following day the governor caused the loving couple to be presented with an ox, a cow, a pair of swine, a pair of fowls, two barrels of salted meat, and eleven crowns. Despite the large demand for wives, every means was resorted to to stimulate marriage. Bounties were offered for early unions. Any father neglecting to marry his children when they had reached the respective ages of twenty and sixteen was heavily fined. No mercy was shown to bachelors. They were forbidden to hunt, fish, or trade with the Indians. Temporarily the population increased at a large rate, and I may incidentally mention that the French Canadians have since always been celebrated for the size of their families. In fact to this feature is largely due the concessions made to them, which have resulted in their still retaining so much of their individuality as a race.

Another important system inaugurated was the seigneurial tenure of land. For the double purpose of colonisation and protection against the Indians, the lands along the river Richelieu and elsewhere were divided into large grants among the officers of the Carignan regiment, who in their turn made grants to the soldiers. The officers thus became feudal chiefs, and the settlements military cantonments. These grants were held upon condition of paying annual fealty to the king and his representative. When a sale was made, one-fifth of the purchase-money was paid to the king. Each seigneur had to maintain order and administer justice on his own domain. The military settlers were known as *censitaires*, and the lots generally had a small frontage upon the river, and often ran back over a mile. In the absence of roads, the river furnished the means of travel and mutual protection. The *censitaire* had to pay the seigneur a nominal rent, and also an annual tribute in kind, such as a pair of fowls or a goose. He had to labour



for the seigneur a certain number of days, and to have his corn ground at the seigneur's mill; to give one fish in every eleven caught, and in the case of sale of lands, to pay one-twelfth of the price realised. This system became later a public nuisance, but it was not entirely abolished until 1854. The rents were often absurdly small, half a sou and half a pint of wheat per acre.

Despite all Talon's efforts, the colony did not flourish. The trade restrictions with which the country was saddled crushed the life out of it. The Company of the West, with its huge monopoly, grew rich, and the colonists, entirely at its mercy, remained poor. The austere, severe influence of the Church interfered with the individual freedom. The young men grew sick of their monotonous, unprofitable existence. Sighing for the freedom and excitement of the fur-trader's life, they openly defied the laws and fled to the woods. Thus the best blood of the colony left it. Those who remained received scant encouragement. The king wearied of the continual drain upon his purse. The company looked after its own affairs. The clergy strove for the improvement of the morals of their flocks, but did little to instruct or improve their condition. The very men who should have taken the lead in the development of New France, devoted all their talents to the pursuit of the profitable fur-trade. Their hot natures rebelled against the trade restrictions and clerical interference with their pleasures. So arose a race of men peculiar to this wild western country, the curious combination of the old noblesse and the rough pioneer, known as the *coureur des bois* or woodsman. This picturesque figure plays a prominent part in the explorations of the great continent and the border wars. A life of constant incident and bristling with dangers, it exacted the possession of high physical strength and courage. The constant intercourse with



the Indians rendered the *coureur* as cunning as the savage, whilst he possessed a superior intellect.

In 1672 Talon retired, and in the same year came out the most celebrated of all the governors, the Count de Frontenac. Impetuous, courageous, and despotic, Frontenac continued the vigorous policy of Talon. He aided the explorations of the continent, and to his time are linked the pioneers of the west, La Salle, Marquette, and Joliet. Whilst Frontenac was friendly to the Jesuits where they were aiding his projects of development, he bitterly opposed their policy of encroachment upon the rights of the Crown. In the council was inaugurated a series of perpetual disputes and cabals. Frontenac defied everybody, and fought tooth and nail against the interference of the Church.

All this time the English colonists in the neighbouring New England settlements had been steadily progressing, and with their progress gradually approached the inevitable great struggle for the ultimate control of the continent.

The English colonies undoubtedly attracted the most desirable settlers. Untrammelled by the narrow-minded restrictions of the dark ages as to trade and liberty, the English colonists made splendid progress. The unfortunate Canadians stood still or retrograded. The value attached to the possession of the fur-trade brought matters to a crisis. Frontenac, aware of the encroaching march of his neighbours, assumed the aggressive, and now began the massacres, border skirmishes, and guerilla warfare which disgraced the relations of the two opposing powers. Each party profited by the perpetual feuds of the Indians, and played one tribe against another. If the white leaders did not actually instigate the scenes of fiendish cruelty which disfigured every campaign, they stood on one side and used no effort to restrain the frenzied Indians from the dreadful slaughters and orgies which ter-

minated every engagement. Instead, the French in particular, encouraged the Indian braves and aroused their worst passions. Frontenac temporarily made headway, but the history of the period is the gradual weakening and concentration of French influence before the better organisation and more enlightened methods of the English. Feudalism had had its day both in the old and the new France. The Government had simply become the vehicle of corruption, bribery, and every conceivable scandal. The steward and the council fattened like vultures upon the poverty-stricken colonists. France, convulsed with European wars, could lend Canada no aid. Little wonder that the net was drawing ever more tightly round the doomed country. Individual acts of heroism prevailed little when the life-blood of the country was being sucked by those who should have laid down their lives to protect it. In the hour of need we find the notorious steward Bigot exhibiting almost incredible rapacity. Settlers' grain and cattle were seized upon any pretext. Bribery, corruption, robbery, and force were resorted to in order to help the steward and his friends to amass wealth. At length the French were reduced to the stronghold of Quebec, and on 13th September 1759 the British, by one of the most brilliant feats in military history, captured the almost impregnable fortress. The story of the heroism of the rival commanders, Wolfe and Montcalm, is a household one. A common monument marks the field where the two great soldiers fell. On 18th September Canada passed for ever into British hands. The blow was a severe one to France, and on his return home Bigot was forced to disgorge no less than 12,000,000 francs of plunder.

The conquest of Canada by the British was the most fortunate event in its history. The institutions of the Middle Ages were at once exchanged for the

methods of modern civilisation. Abject submission to a foreign, corrupt court was replaced by local self-government. The Habeas Corpus Act and trial by jury succeeded the dark methods of feudalism. Freed from the attacks of the Indians and the rascality of the debauched government, the "habitant" or settler could till the soil. Trade was freed from the clutches of monopolists, and some impetus lent to the development of the natural resources of Canada. Although purely French by race and language, the conquered people realised that they had improved their condition. The enormous superiority of the French in numbers was however then, and has always continued to be, a feature that required the most delicate handling. Whilst proud of their country and loyal to its government, the French Canadians, like all other conquered races, have been exceedingly sensitive regarding any encroachment, imaginary or real, upon what they consider their rights, and it has required from time to time all the common sense and diplomacy of the conquerors to steer clear of obstacles which have arisen in this direction.

The first form of government was a military one, Canada being divided into three districts, Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers. A council of officers administered justice. This rule, although firm and honest, grew distasteful to the colonists. Although the British were wise enough not to interfere with the deep religion of the "habitants," the overthrow of all the laws, customs, and judicial forms was resented by a people who have ever been conservative and slow to adopt new methods. As was natural, all public offices were given to British-born subjects, and the English language was the sole medium of official communication. Outside of the military, there were under four hundred Englishmen in the colony, although after the formal annexation by the Treaty of Paris in 1763.

inducements were held out to encourage settlement. The French were almost ignorant of the English language, and countless misunderstandings arose.

At length, after seventeen years of military rule, the unsuccessful system was replaced by the "Quebec Act." This bill, passed in 1774, was of a most sweeping nature, and whilst it certainly ameliorated a distinct grievance, it must on the other hand be held largely responsible for the marked racial individuality which the French Canadians still maintain, and which has undoubtedly been an obstacle to the progress of the Province. All the Acts relative to civil government and justice were annulled. The Act released the Roman Catholics in Canada from all penal restrictions; their former connection with the Church as to tithes, &c., was renewed. The French laws were declared to be the rules for decisions relative to property and civil rights, whilst the English criminal law was established in perpetuity. A governor and council were appointed by the Crown, its affairs being limited to the control of internal matters. The Act was a great concession to the French Canadians, and probably won their loyalty and devotion, both in the war of American Independence and the subsequent war with the Americans in 1812, in which they, shoulder to shoulder with their fellow-colonists of British extraction, gallantly opposed the American invasion. The retention of French civil law, however, has proved of doubtful benefit, as being quite different from that subsequently in force in the other portions of a British colony. The concessions made to the Church, which, it is true, represented the faith of almost the entire population of the Province, have contributed to a continuance of the enormous influence which the priests have always exercised. A large proportion of the people have always been rural by occupation, and as such, poorly educated and slow to keep up with the progress of modern civilisation. This



ecclesiastical influence, if in some ways advantageous, has undoubtedly seriously handicapped the efforts both of English and educated French Canadians for the better development of the Province.

The Quebec Act, however, lasted only seventeen years, when, owing to the influx of the loyal refugees from the recently lost American colonies, Upper Canada was founded. The dislike of these loyal colonists to French habits and institutions led to the passing of the Constitution Act, by which Canada was divided into two distinct provinces, Upper and Lower Canada, separated both as to government and laws. This movement, however desirable it may have seemed at the time, was a great mistake, tending as it did to perpetuate the differences of race and institutions between the inhabitants of the same colony.

Despite gradual development, the two provinces encountered many obstacles. In Quebec the country was torn by the dissensions of the French and English-speaking citizens. Superior in numbers, as a rule intensely ignorant, church-ridden, and unprogressive, the "habitants" sought to abuse the concessions made to them by the conquering race. The English, better educated and possessing better methods of cultivation and commerce, bitterly resented the assumption of power and authority which the French endeavoured to arrogate to themselves. In both provinces there was a constant struggle for the rights of the people to have a larger share in the government of their country. As in all cases where the actual control is from outside the country, and regulated by persons often ignorant of the necessities of the inhabitants, the original methods needed reform and alteration as the country grew. In Canada the direction of public affairs was centred in officials often directly at variance with popular public opinion. Quarrels and riots disfigured Upper Canada: actual revolt, known as Papineau's rebellion, broke out



in Lower Canada, and the prosperity and very existence of the Province were in jeopardy.

At this juncture (1838) Lord Durham was sent out, and his celebrated report has had much to do with the subsequent progress and prosperity of the country. Amongst other suggestions, Lord Durham recommended the federal union of all the provinces, an intercolonial railway, and an executive council responsible to the Assembly. The immediate result of the report was the union of the two Canadas, which was effected by a bill on February 10, 1841. This consolidation of Canada was beset with many obstacles and difficulties. Its result was on the whole satisfactory, as the bill made great concessions to public opinion, although it did not actually grant the elective legislative council which had been agitated for. The Act of Union created one legislative council and one legislative assembly, in which each province should be equally represented. The council was to be appointed by the Crown, the assembly elected by the people. An executive council was formed of eight members, any of whom who held seats in the assembly had to go back to the people for re-election. The control of all the revenues was entrusted to the people and the judiciary, by a permanent civil list made independent of the assembly. This Act prevailed until, in response to the general necessity which was apparent for the consolidation of the whole of the provinces, and of which previous lectures will have given full details, the Confederation Bill of 1867 was passed, and the Dominion of Canada created.

Having, I fear at great length, passed in review the leading incidents, an acquaintance with which seemed to me to be necessary in order to thoroughly understand the institutions and inhabitants of Quebec at the present day, I must, before passing on to the natural and commercial features of the Province, make a brief reference to the actual government. Quebec

is represented in the Federal Parliament by twenty-four members of the Senate and sixty-five of the House of Commons. Like the other provinces, it possesses an elaborate system of local government. In the case of Quebec this consists of a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Governor-General for a term of five years, and of two Houses, the Legislative Council of twenty-four members appointed by the Crown for life, and the Legislative Assembly elected by the people for a term of five years. The system is similar to that adopted at Ottawa, and an executive council or ministry is responsible to the legislature. The local Houses have jurisdiction over direct taxation, provincial loans, the appointment and maintenance of provincial officers, the management of provincial lands, prisons, hospitals, and asylums; municipal institutions, local improvements, education, and matters affecting property and civil rights. Regarding the administration of justice, the Governor-General appoints the judges of the superior, district, and county courts, their salaries, &c., being fixed and paid by the Dominion Government. The judges of the court of Quebec must, however, be selected from the bar of that Province. The administration of justice, regarding the constitution, maintenance, and organisation of provincial courts, both civil and criminal, is left to the Provincial Government, and there are also county courts with limited jurisdiction. Police magistrates and justices are appointed by the Provincial Government. In Quebec, the distinction between barristers and solicitors does not exist. Both practise under the common title of advocate. Both in Parliament and law, the use of the dual languages is allowed; and in law particularly, French is more generally resorted to. Admission to practise rests entirely in the hands of the General Council of the Bar of the Province of Quebec, and all applicants, including even

those already possessing a degree, must serve a term articulated to a practising advocate. The old French law is widely different from that found in other parts of Canada. Regarding marriage, community of property between man and wife exists, unless a stipulation is made to the contrary by special deed.

Before taking leave of such matters, it may be stated that there is also a very elaborate system of municipal government in towns and villages for the control of purely local matters. The system of education in force is that of separate schools for Protestants and Catholics.

Educational matters are under the control of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, assisted by a council, and divided into committees, for the management of the Roman Catholic and Protestant schools respectively. The schools are maintained partly by local taxation and partly by Government grants, and are individually controlled by local boards or by the local clergy. Religion is assumed to be the basis of education, and the various Roman Catholic bodies are largely interested in these matters. Indeed they originally started education in the Province, and the system of education always maintained has undoubtedly contributed to the very great influence which the Church continues to hold over the people. The educational institutions are decidedly good, and McGill University at Montreal, thanks largely to private munificence, is one of the most complete on the American Continent; Laval University, at Quebec, has also a high reputation.

As regards natural features, Quebec has an area of 230,000 square miles, or nearly double that of the United Kingdom. Commanding as it does the entrance to the great natural inland waterway of North America, formed by the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, the Province is of great commercial

importance, quite apart from its own resources. In so large an area, naturally considerable variety of climate and conditions is encountered, but lumbering, farming, and fishing are most generally carried on. The scenery is most varied, ranging from the grandeur of the Laurentian hills and the silence of the primeval forest to the almost Brittany-like picturesqueness of the agricultural districts.

As to population, according to the census of 1891 Quebec had 1,488,535 inhabitants, of which almost 1,200,000 were returned as French-speaking, and 94½ per cent. as being born in Canada. To those who visit Montreal, with its commercial activity and evidences of the adoption of modern improvements of every kind, the preponderance of the French population which exists in country districts is not apparent. Under the circumstances, the proportion of trade controlled by the small English-speaking minority is remarkable, and a striking proof of the possession of those commercial qualities which have contributed so largely to the foundation of the British Empire. Until quite recently, however, the Church and legal profession acquired the best educated amongst the French. Latterly, many French business houses of high standing are to be found in commercial circles. The French furnish the greater part of the labour throughout the Province. They are industrious, sober, and steady-going, although as a rule unprogressive, and a contented people.

The climate of Quebec, whilst subject to a wide range of temperature, is decidedly healthy. The summers are slightly hotter than in England. The autumn is the most pleasant season of the year, the wonderful display of colour afforded by the turning of the leaves being truly beautiful. The winters are decidedly cold, and in the northern districts severe. Of spring, there is practically none, the weather often



becoming quite warm before the snow has all disappeared. Winter commences about Christmas, and lasts until the beginning of April. To Canadians this is the most enjoyable time of the year. The cold is dry and exhilarating. The people dress according to the requirements of the climate, and all houses and public buildings are heated—often to excess. Snow falls to a considerable depth, providing splendid hard roads which are of great benefit to country trade. Outdoor sports of all kinds, such as sleighing, skating, snow-shoeing, tobogganing, and curling all flourish, and winter is the season of general social enjoyment. Its arrival and departure are unpleasant, the country roads often being quite impassable.

The great disadvantage of the winter to Canada is the compulsory cessation of navigation for over five months of each year as regards the St. Lawrence water. During that period a large amount of freight is diverted to American ports. With an open sea the year round, Montreal would presumably by this time have a population of over a million.

The population of the Province of Quebec is mainly rural, and agriculture the staple industry. Whilst the Province was originally covered with forests, many of which still remain and are a source of great wealth, the soil in many sections is very fertile, particularly in the eastern townships. The French Canadian "habitant" is a natural pioneer. Easily contented, and industrious if slow, he loves freedom. The blessings of modern civilisation hold out few charms to him. He is not anxious to be enlightened, but prefers to be let alone. No sooner, therefore, does a settlement become sufficiently large to dabble in education and politics, than he gets rid of his farm, pushes further into the bush, and regains the liberty dear to his heart. Inured to the hardships of the bush, the "habitant" soon makes himself and his family comfortable, erects a log house,



clears sufficient land for the provision of vegetables and grain, and gradually converts the forest primeval into smart little villages. Both the Government and the clergy encourage these colonising tendencies, and new districts are constantly being opened up. In order to encourage large families, an Act of 1892 gives a free grant of 100 acres to the head of a family of twelve living children. On the other hand, these large families undoubtedly keep the French-speaking Canadians poorer than their English fellow-citizens, and have been responsible for the very considerable exodus into the United States which has taken place.

Mixed farming of the best class is, however, conducted very largely throughout Quebec, and in the eastern townships many of the best farmers are English-speaking. Indeed, the wonderful development of dairying within the last few years is a most noteworthy feature. Farms that were relics of the old seigneurial days, and in appearance and natural advantages recalled the homesteads of Normandy and Brittany, had through ignorance and negligence become quite exhausted. The most primary rules of modern farming were not attended to. Happily, thanks to the vigorous intervention of the Dominion and Provincial Governments, these evils have now been remedied. Expert instructors have been sent through the country to teach the most approved methods of dairying. Stock-raising has been studied. Crops are raised in proper rotation. A dairy school has been opened. Farmers' clubs have been organised and lectures given periodically. An agricultural journal circulates amongst 52,000 subscribers. I have just been reading a speech recently delivered by the Minister of Agriculture, from which it appears that in 1895 Quebec possessed 1417 cheese factories and 302 creameries, the value of the product being over £1,500,000. As a result the condition of the farmers has vastly improved, and with it

the welfare of the whole Province. Many of the villages being quite close to the rivers, have practically during the season of navigation a direct water connection with Europe, and in winter good rail connection with Halifax, St. John, and Portland.

Land can still be obtained in the townships. Unimproved farms, which require clearing, cost from 8s. to 20s. an acre. Improved farms, the holdings generally comprising 100 acres, cost from £2 to £6 per acre. Farms can also be rented, generally on sharing system. These figures apply only to the English-speaking districts.

Labour is cheap, and the constant arrival of immigrants who come to Quebec on account of its being the cheapest point to reach from Great Britain, tends to render remuneration to farm-labourers less than in other parts of Canada. All immigrants are handled by the Government officials, who are of great help in securing situations. Speaking generally, with their vicinity not only to Canadian but to European markets, the eastern townships offer inducements to practical farmers with some capital which are hardly at present taken full advantage of. Cereals of all kinds flourish. Flax, wheat, oats, buckwheat, Indian corn, and roots, are all good crops. The market gardens, particularly those upon the island of Montreal, are of very high grade. Fruit grows abundantly, the apples being particularly good. The celebrated "fameuse" apple now comes over here in large quantities. Tomatoes flourish with other vegetables. The "habitants" all raise tobacco, which they cure and consume. A peculiar product is "maple sugar." Every spring the sugar maples are tapped and the sap collected. This sap is then boiled down, and the product, which is most delicious, used either as sweetmeat or by the country people as a substitute for sugar. Agricultural shows are held annually, and the exhibition of cattle, sheep, pigs, &c., is very creditable.

Nature has been lavish with her water supply nearly everywhere, which, whether for irrigation, sport, or motive power, is an immense natural advantage.

Lumbering is another very important industry, the white and spruce pine forests being exceedingly valuable. The ownership is vested in the Provincial Government, which grants licences to lumbermen, and it is estimated that 30,000,000 acres still remain untouched. Spruce, cedar, birch, maple, tamarac, and cypress, with pine, are the leading species. Lumbering upon the St. Maurice, Lower Ottawa, Lake St. John, and in other regions, is conducted upon a very large basis. The unlimited supply of soft woods suitable for the manufacture of wood-pulp, the modern constituent of paper-making, should be a source of enormous wealth to Quebec. Already several very large pulp-mills are working, and nearly every village has its saw-mill. As in other parts of Canada, Americans own a good many of the timber limits, and the logs are sent off to the United States. Quebec has, however, a very extensive timber trade with Great Britain.

Formerly the city of Quebec was the most important shipping centre, but to-day the greater portion of deals and lumber is loaded at Montreal, although Quebec retains her position as the shipping port for square timber. The value of timber exports from Canada in 1891 was nearly £17,000,000.

The fisheries are another valuable item, about 11,700 persons being engaged in this occupation in Quebec. Cod, herring, salmon, and lobsters are the principal fish. The yield in 1894 was valued at about £500,000.

The Province possesses great mineral resources. The deposits of asbestos, mica, and apatite or phosphate of lime are extensive, and their working employs a large number of men. Of both magnetic and chromic iron there are large quantities. Copper, gold, and

silver are all produced, and the supply of marble, granite, and building stone is varied. Pig-iron is made, and there are two blast-furnaces in operation.

Quebec is also an industrial province of great importance. Montreal and Quebec are the chief manufacturing centres, but there are extensive factories also at Sherbrooke, Magog, St. John's, and St. Hyacinthe. Few people who have not visited the Province have any idea of the number and extent of its industrial establishments. Cotton and woollen mills, rolling-mills, nail and tack works, foundries, paper-mills, flour-mills, boot and shoe factories, sugar refineries, carriage works, wall paper, cutlery, saw, tool, and implement works, I enumerate as a few. Furniture and all kinds of woodwork form another important branch. As the virtual centre of these varied manufactures, and the principal shipping port of the whole Dominion, it is not surprising that Montreal is a city of great commercial wealth and importance.

Whilst two-thirds of the population of Quebec is rural, there are several large cities and towns. Montreal, with its suburbs, must possess about 300,000 inhabitants; Quebec has over 63,000; Hull, 11,200; Sherbrooke, 10,100, and Levis, St. Hyacinthe, and Sorel, each about 6000. Quebec City is the centre of the leather and boot and shoe trades, and does a large general trade with the fishing villages of the Lower St. Lawrence. To the magnificence of its natural situation I have already referred. As a tourist resort, with its relics of the old world, it is one of the most popular upon the American Continent. The breakneck descent in the two-wheeled calèches, down the steep hills which connect the upper with the lower town, fills the stranger with terror. Quebec is also the starting-point for the seaside summer resorts and the beautiful Saguenay River. At certain seasons there is much



gaiety. As the capital, Quebec is, of course, the seat of government of the Province.

Montreal is certainly one of the most beautifully situated cities in the world. At the foot of the so-called mountain from which it takes its name, Montreal faces the splendid sweep of the broad St. Lawrence, and is connected with the southern shores by the Victoria railway bridge, still one of the most remarkable of modern engineering feats. In the mountain it possesses one of the loveliest natural parks in existence, and whilst the residential portion contains fine broad streets flanked with handsome houses, the commercial quarter includes some splendid examples of architecture. As the port of the Dominion, the harbour and shipping of the city are one of its main features, and the following details, taken from the harbour-master's report for the year 1896, afford some idea of the trade: 709 seagoing and 4832 inland vessels arrived in port during the season, or a total of 5541 vessels of all classes. There are regular lines to Liverpool, London, Glasgow, Bristol, Newcastle, Dublin, Antwerp, Hamburg, Havre, and occasional communication with many others. By the St. Lawrence and a system of canals, Montreal harbour has direct communication with all the ports on the Great Lakes, and when the canals have been deepened to a uniform measurement, ocean vessels will be able to reach Lake Superior. At the opening and closing of navigation there is great bustling and activity. To give an idea of the export trade alone, in 1896 were shipped from Montreal 18,000,000 bushels of grain, 750,000 barrels of flour, 1,722,000 boxes of cheese, 158,000 packages of butter, 725,000 barrels of apples, 97,000 head of cattle, 76,000 sheep, 10,000 horses, 12,500 tons of hay, and 230,000,000 feet of lumber, to mention just a few of the principal articles.

Montreal is the head-quarters of the Canadian



Pacific Railway, the longest railway in the world, and such an important factor in the development of Canada. The Grand Trunk Railway, its famous rival, and several other important lines, all start from here. The Bank of Montreal, one of the most important financial institutions in the world, has its head office in the city, and many other banks, insurance companies, and other institutions occupy imposing buildings. The churches, hospitals, and Catholic seminaries are all worthy of mention. The advent of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and more recently the construction of a very elaborate system of electrical tramways, seem to have given Montreal a new lease of life, and the latter has done much to open up the outlying districts of the island.

Montreal, however, really consists of two distinct cities, separated by St. Lawrence Main Street. Eastwards lies a purely French-Canadian city, architecturally and otherwise differing from the western or English city. For if the French have the numbers, the English and Scotch have a great proportion of the money, and just as eagerly embrace new inventions and conveniences as the French are inclined to regard them with mistrust.

Now, whilst I have aimed at showing the reasons of such differences as still separate the English and French-speaking Canadian, differences of race and customs, I must, in order to dispel any misapprehension, also clearly state that the French Canadian of to-day has almost nothing in common with the modern Frenchman. The proverbial lightness of temperament, mercurial disposition, and love of variety which characterise the Parisian of this end of the century are foreign to the stolid, steady, typical French Canadian. That love of amusement, music, and painting, which is universal in France, finds but slight echo in the serious, hard-working Canadians of the educated

classes. The "habitants," or country people, remain largely what their ancestors were, two hundred and fifty years ago—thrifty, shrewd, and hard-headed Norman peasants. The descendants of the seigneurs, many of whom bear names that are amongst the most honoured in the annals of France, still retain many of the characteristics of a bygone age. Even the language is the French of other days—a kind of patois with a plentiful addition of local expressions, often direct translations of English phrases.

I know many French Canadians of all classes, and know them well. They are wonderfully conservative, and I do not think that any portion of the somewhat varied population scattered over the vast Dominion is more attached to Canada than Her Majesty's French Canadian subjects. It must not be forgotten that as the original settlers of Canada they can look a long time back, and have traditions of which they are proud unto sensitiveness. Like many other people who have been taught to dumbly accept the dictum of their religious advisers, the rural population, unused to thinking for themselves, are occasionally led away by the visionary eloquence of some inflammatory demagogue, but taken altogether I am confident that the French Canadians are proud of Canada and satisfied at its connection with this great empire.

With the progress of education comes greater freedom of thought and the sweeping away of ideas which are opposed to the advance of civilisation. How marked a revolution is daily being carried on in the Province of Quebec, is apparent to any one familiar with the Province revisiting it after the lapse of a few years.

Circumstances have caused more attention in recent years to be directed to the Far West, which only needs population to become prosperous. To people who, however, possess some capital, a mere trifle in a financial

centre like England, but of treble value in a new country, the eastern and older portions of Canada possess advantages that are apt to be overlooked. A large country like Quebec still offers many admirable opportunities for investment. Close to the world's markets, and rich in natural resources, it is bound to increase in prosperity.

Montreal even now is a city which is practically second to none in Greater Britain, and from the point of solidity stands unique in Canada, and not very far behind the largest city in the United States.

The Province of Quebec, with its magnificent forests, pastures, and minerals, and its splendid natural advantages in the possession of the great St. Lawrence, must have a great future. And there is no more hopeful sign for the realisation of the objects for which its people toil, than the ever-increasing tendency of its citizens to forget their petty differences in a united effort to promote the welfare of their joint heritage.

# NEW BRUNSWICK PAST AND PRESENT

By C. A. DUFF MILLER

*(Agent-General, New Brunswick)*

THE province of the British Empire with which I have to deal, and in which I take a very deep interest, is very little heard of, probably on account of its steady-going good behaviour, and consequently is not so well known as many much less important countries of the world.

In the early days of the French and English settlements in America, the province of New Brunswick was a part of the French province or colony of Acadia, which included within its somewhat elastic and not very clearly-defined boundaries the countries now known as Cape Breton Island, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and the State of Maine.

I say somewhat elastic boundaries, as they were made to vary according to the changing fortunes of the English, the French, or the New England Settlements, but originally the extent of Acadia was as I have just described.

New Brunswick, which was made a distinct province in 1784, occupies that part of the great Dominion of Canada and of the Continent of America situated nearest to Great Britain.

As a practical illustration of this, it may be stated that the port of Chatham on the Miramichi River is nearer to Liverpool than any other port of any considerable importance on the mainland of America, its distance by shortest route through the Strait of Belle

Isle being about 2430 miles, whereas Halifax, in Nova Scotia, is distant 2450, Quebec 2633, and New York 3105 miles respectively.

### INTRODUCTORY

New Brunswick is a very compact country, being almost square, and all its districts having at the same time easy access to the ocean, being practically washed by the sea on three sides, that is by the Bay of Chaleur, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and Northumberland Strait on the north and east, and by the Bay of Fundy on the south, whilst the grand St. John River and the St. Croix most effectively open up the western counties of the province to the sea.

It has good ports on all these waters, the city of St. John at the mouth of the river of the same name and that of Halifax being the two most important winter ports of Canada, whilst St. Andrews (also open all winter) is beautifully situated on the Passamaquoddy Bay.

This bay, covering an area of 100 square miles, forms a magnificent harbour, with easy access to the Atlantic Ocean, but the water is entirely sheltered, and here could lie in stately repose the navies of every country in the world.

New Brunswick adjoins the province of Quebec on the north, the State of Maine on the west, the province of Nova Scotia on the south-east, and is separated from the province of Prince Edward Island by the Strait of Northumberland.

Now, with regard to the size and population of the country, I may say that it contains about 28,000 square miles of territory, making it considerably larger than the two kingdoms of Holland and Belgium combined, or than Holland and Switzerland put together. Nearly 15,000 square miles are forest and woodland.



It is divided into fifteen counties, which in total area are equal to the twenty-seven middle and southern counties of England, so that it is also, roughly speaking, about two-thirds the size of England, and equal in size to all England lying south of a line drawn from Chester on the Dee to the Wash. The extreme length is 230 miles, and the width 190 miles.

Its population is now estimated to be 325,000, making it the fourth in importance in this respect of the provinces forming the Dominion. To compare it with the Australasian and South African colonies, the population is rather over that of South Australia, about half that of New Zealand, not far inferior in numbers to the whole white population of the Cape Colony, and, although only a third larger in extent of territory than Natal, it contains six times as many white people.

#### EARLY DISCOVERERS

Having now given a general idea of the geographical position of New Brunswick, let us turn to its early history in connection with its first visitors or discoverers in medieval times.

Five years after Columbus had discovered or, at any rate, reopened a road to the western continent, in his search for a new and more direct route to the Indies, John Cabot, who set sail from Bristol for the New World with letters-patent granted by Henry VII., and with a man-of-war, the *Matthew*, and three merchant ships, and, we are told, equipment worthy of the undertaking, was the first European in modern and unquestioned history to set foot on the Continent of America.

Whether the first land seen by Cabot was Newfoundland or Nova Scotia, there is no question but that he visited Acadia, he having sailed along the

American shores some one thousand miles and erected upon the coast the flag of England, in token of its possession by his patron. The 400th anniversary of this first landing or discovery of the mainland of America was celebrated in 1897, not only in the town of Bristol, from which this notable expedition set sail, but also in Nova Scotia.

Cabot returned to England with two of the natives, and in the following year (1498) another expedition set sail under the command of his son, Sebastian Cabot, who, after attempting the North-West Passage and being driven therefrom by the ice, skirted along the whole coast of North America as far as Florida. It is on the ground of these visits of the Cabots that the English based their claims to the ownership of these countries in the disputes which followed between the English and the French almost continuously during the succeeding two centuries and a half.

Gaspar de Cortereal, a Portuguese, was the next visitor to these shores, in the year 1500, and being driven back, like Cabot, by the ice in the north, he visited a country his description of which might well accord with Acadia, namely: "A country abounding in immense pines, with people attired in the skins of wild animals; these natives were well made and fitted for labour," so much so, in his estimation, that he captured fifty-seven of them and brought them back with him to Europe, where they were sold as slaves.

On his second voyage he met with mishap, as neither he nor his ships were heard of more.

In 1524 Verazzano, a Florentine, under the patronage of Francis I. of France, was the next notable voyager to visit this part of America. He first touched in South Carolina, and found that the farther northwards he proceeded the more hostile the natives became. This is not to be wondered at, as the con-

duct of the early European voyagers in carrying off the then friendly aborigines to slavery was not calculated to dispose them favourably towards other visitors of the same colour. He gave the name of New France to the whole of the territory which he visited. This was the origin of the French claim.

The next expedition we read of is that of Mr. Thomas Thorne, a learned and wealthy citizen of Bristol, who having obtained the countenance and support of Henry VIII., sailed forth in 1527 in the *Dominus Vosbiscum* accompanied by a canon of St. Paul's, a man of much wealth, and imbued with a desire for scientific discovery.

The voyage was not prosperous, and having lost one of their ships in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the other coasted along the shores of Arembec—the name given by the English to Acadia—and returned to England the same year. Nothing appears to have resulted from this trading and colonising expedition.

We now come to a much more notable figure in the early history of Canada and Acadia, in the person of Jacques Cartier, a very bold and skilful pilot of St. Malo, in France.

He sailed, with two small vessels of sixty tons each, from that port in 1534. He touched at Newfoundland, sailed through the Strait of Belle Isle to the north of that island, and on the 30th June came in sight of the shores of New Brunswick, at the mouth of the beautiful Miramichi River on the "north shore."

Cartier entered this river, and speaks of it as "a very goodly river, but very shallow." Hannay also tells us, in his "History of Acadia," that this, the first explorer to describe New Brunswick itself, as distinguished from other parts of Acadia or America, was charmed with the beauty and fertility of the country, and speaks of it in glowing terms. The forest trees

were principally pines, cedars, white elms, ash, willow, and yew trees, and many others with which the navigator was unacquainted.

Amongst the latter, no doubt, was the hemlock spruce, a very beautiful and lofty forest tree, in no manner resembling the herb called hemlock with which Socrates poisoned himself, but resembling the yew, or a tree between that and the pine.

This tree is chiefly valuable on account of its bark, which is rich in the most valuable form of tannic acid for the manufacture of leather, and to its abundance in Canada and the Eastern States of the Union is entirely due the most important place that America holds in the great industry of tanning.

The industry of gathering this bark for the making of leather and the manufacture of tanning extracts gives employment to many of the inhabitants not only of the Miramichi Valley but also to other districts of New Brunswick, at seasons of the year when other work or occupation is difficult to obtain.

But to return to Cartier, he reports that where there were no trees, the ground was covered with gooseberries, strawberries, and blackberries, wild peas, and a species of wild corn which resembled rye. The climate was as warm as that of Spain, and the birds were very numerous. The land was level, and the natives manifested a friendly disposition.

Such is, in substance, the account given (according to Hannay) of this part of New Brunswick by its first recorded discoverer, who, fresh from the rugged coast and severe climate of Newfoundland and Labrador, was the better able to appreciate its beauties.

I quote at this length in order to show that New Brunswick is by no means a country that is always covered with snow the year round as some imagine, but that it enjoys a delightful summer, and this is not



astonishing when we remember that it lies between the latitudes  $45^{\circ}$  and  $48^{\circ}$ , corresponding in this respect to that part of France lying between Nantes and Bordeaux. An old French writer on Acadia declared that every tree that flourished in France would grow in Acadia—except the olive.

We need not follow Jacques Cartier further, except to say that he proceeded along the coast northwards, entering the great Bay of Chaleur, the northern boundary of the province, which he so named on account of the great heat prevailing while he sojourned there, and thence passed up the St. Lawrence River, which, with the Great Lakes, forms the grandest waterway in the world, containing, as it is said to do, half the fresh water of the globe. He thus became the first discoverer of Canada.

Some fifty years later than Cartier's first voyage, about the middle of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, commanded the best-fitted expedition that had set sail for the New World up to that time.

Besides carrying a large stock of provisions and articles of traffic, its *personnel* was carefully chosen, and consisted of blacksmiths, carpenters, shipwrights, &c., 260 men in all; but the expedition was unfortunate from first to last from contagious disease having broken out shortly after sailing, and also on account of storms and disaster.

From the first-mentioned cause the largest of the fleet, fitted out by Sir Walter Raleigh himself and named after him, had to put back. Who amongst us in our young days has not been impressed with the tragic story of the adventures of the *Delight*, the *Golden Hind*, and of the loss of the gallant commander in mid-Atlantic on board of the little *Squirrel*? As Hannay justly says: "The death of Sir Humphrey Gilbert was a sad loss to the New World as well as to



the Old, for in his ocean grave was buried the hope of Acadia being made a British colony at that time. How different might its history have been had that navigator's designs been carried into effect!"

One more expedition to Acadia is recorded just at the close of the sixteenth century, and that was again French, under the command of Marquis de la Roche and the auspices of the Huguenot king of France, Henry IV. This was just 300 years ago—in 1598—and 100 years after the visit of Cabot.

But all these expeditions, although enjoying the encouragement of such notable monarchs as Henry VII. and VIII., Queen Elizabeth, Francis I., and Henri IV., really made during a whole century no solid progress towards the foundation of colonies; nevertheless, the waters surrounding Acadia were frequented by hardy and adventurous fishermen from the coasts of Great Britain, Brittany, the Basque provinces of France and Spain, and also from Portugal. They no doubt landed for supplies of fresh water and fuel, and to dry or cure their fish and to trade with the natives, but no real or permanent settlements were the result. We cannot but admire their pluck and daring, continued without interruption to this day, in quest of the boundless wealth of cod and other fish for which this region, including the banks of Newfoundland, is so famous.

As an illustration of this fact, it is stated that Sir Humphrey Gilbert, after his stormy voyage across the Atlantic in 1583, found no less than thirty-six fishing vessels of different nationalities lying in the harbour of St. John's, Newfoundland. To quote our great New Brunswick historian once more: "In this way the whole coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence became well known long before Canada and Acadia contained a single white settler, and the Atlantic coast of Acadia was equally familiar to these traders and fishermen."

## NORSE DISCOVERERS

But these were not the first visitors or discoverers of Acadia, as there is no question but that it was visited by the Norsemen at the end of the tenth and beginning of the eleventh centuries, and whatever the claims of Labrador, Newfoundland, Massachusetts, or Quebec may be as to their being designated by the ancient Norse names of Helluland, Markland, or Vinland, which they gave to the respective countries they visited, there is little doubt that Nova Scotia and New Brunswick represent one or other of these.

That the learned of Europe knew of the existence of America long before Columbus is evidenced by the fact that Pope Pascal II., in the year 1112, appointed one Eric Upsi Bishop of Iceland, Greenland, and Vinland, and it is also related that this good prelate visited the latter country in the year 1121.

However, space will not permit of our following this very interesting subject. I will only mention that even Vinland would apply to New Brunswick, as grapes grow in abundance on the islands of the St. John River.

## FRENCH RÉGIME

Nor have we time to follow the history covering the period of 160 years, during which this country passed backwards and forwards between the French and the English, from the arrival in 1603 of De Monts, who was accompanied by Champlain, the founder of Quebec, until the final surrender of the whole of Acadia along with Canada to the English in the year 1763, although it is a history full of romance and interest, as many of my readers will recognise at the mention of such names as De Poutrincourt, Biencourt, Sir William Alexander, Sir David Kertk, De Razilly,

Denys, Abbé Laloutre, and especially of Latour and Charnisay.

### BRITISH RULE

The chief fact, however, of interest is that New Brunswick, though first really settled as an English colony in 1761, is the creation of the American Revolution, when in 1783 a fleet arrived from New York with 3000 loyalists, who left the United States to find a new home in a country still under the British flag. The United Empire Loyalist element is to this day the backbone and sinew of the country.

The first Governor was Sir Thomas Carleton, who soon transferred the capital to Fredericton, eighty-six miles up the St. John River, which was the old French post of St. Anne, and which by way of the Nashwauk and the Miramichi opened up the most ready means, in the French colonial days, of reaching the main French province of Canada. Till this time New Brunswick formed part of the province of Nova Scotia, but from this date was a separate province. Since then the growth of population and the development of the resources of the country have been gradual and sure.

I must not, however, omit to mention the great Miramichi fire of 1825, when no less than 3,000,000 acres of valuable forest lands were burnt down, \$1,000,000 of property destroyed, and 160 lives lost. The settlers, with their families and their cattle, were driven into the rivers and sea, together with the wild animals, this being the only refuge from the flames.

To those who wish for more information in regard to the history as well as the natural and general features of New Brunswick, I would refer them to Hannay's "History of Acadia," and to a new issue of Stanford's "Compendium of Geography," Vol. I., just published, relating to Canada and Newfoundland, by

Dr. S. E. Dawson, to both of which I am especially indebted for many facts and up-to-date information.

### THE COUNTRY

It has often been remarked by visitors to America that the most English countries, as regards both the people themselves and the general appearance of the country, are the Maritime Provinces of Canada.

To quote from the beautiful Jubilee number of the *Toronto Globe*, a copy of which was sent to the Queen, and was exhibited among the Queen's Jubilee presents, in describing New Brunswick, it says: "A country may well claim to be prosperous when it is found to have neither the extreme of great wealth nor of great poverty among its people. This is the happy condition of the maritime provinces of Canada as a whole, but in no one of them is this more evident than in the province of New Brunswick. While it is not a land where fortunes are rapidly won and lost in the fever of speculation, it is yet a country where a competence may be gained as easily as anywhere on the earth, and where there is the still more important assurance that prosperity and comfort are the reward of the sober, honest, and industrious of all classes. Its contour and physical features are such as to make all parts of it easily accessible and available for settlement as the increase of the population may demand."

### PEOPLE

It is a remarkable fact, that of the people of this province 94 per cent. are native-born Canadians, and of the remaining 6 per cent. only 1 per cent. were born outside the British Empire. This shows how little of the foreign element there is, and also, I fear, at the same time, how little New Brunswick as a field for emigration is known.



They are naturally a seafaring people, largely descended from generations of sailors and fishermen, and turn to the ocean for a livelihood, whether in connection with the fisheries or navigation. The ship-building trade was formerly the most important industry of the colony, with the single exception of lumbering, and still the wooden ships of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia are to be seen in every seaport of the world. Although the people of these provinces have an inborn capacity for the management of such vessels and are able to work them at a profit where others have failed, we must admit that iron and steel vessels are speedily driving the wooden ships off the seas.

I agree with Lord Charles Beresford that when England requires more men of the right sort to man her navy, she can look to her colonies to supply them, and not the least suitable are those who hail from the Atlantic provinces of Canada. It would, indeed, be a wise measure if the British and Canadian Governments would join in providing a training-ship for the Maritime Provinces.

New Brunswick has 545 miles of seaboard, and Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island have an even greater extent of coast.

#### EMIGRATION

English tenant farmers, or young men brought up to farming and who have a few hundred pounds available, could do worse than seek a home in this country. They will find with little trouble farms to suit their fancy and their fortune, the owners being satisfied to accept a certain proportion of cash and to leave the remainder of the purchase money as a charge, if desired, extending over several years. This applies to those who have even £100 or £200 up to £2000.



These farms come into the market from a variety of causes and reasons which it is not necessary to enumerate here, but the chief cause is the desire of the son of the old settler to better himself and to go farther west, where he hears of what he thinks are better chances of improving his condition, and, with his experience of rough life in the backwoods, this is no doubt true; but the Englishman or Scotchman from the old country will find it quite as big a step to transfer his energies to the—to him—equally novel surroundings of an old-established colony like New Brunswick.

To him, however, who has not got the desirable two or three hundred pounds at his disposal, I would say, leave the little he has at home in the savings-bank, and on arrival hire himself out to a farmer or take any work he can get for a year or so; he will certainly be able to earn a living, if not to save something, and when he has gained some experience of the country, take up a free grant from the Government or buy a farm partially cleared. Large areas of the finest land capable of sustaining hundreds of thousands of farmers are still obtainable without encroaching much on the large territories of forest, where the land is by no means bad, but not of the best quality for profitable farming.

Land is easily obtained; the conditions under which a lot of 100 acres can be secured by actual settlers are so easy as to be within the reach of any man who has health and energy.<sup>1</sup> He may pay £4 in cash to aid in the construction of the roads and bridges in his locality, or he need pay no cash if he is willing to perform work on roads and bridges for three years to the value of £2 a year. Within two years after obtaining permission to occupy the land, he must build on it a house not less than sixteen by twenty feet, and clear at least two acres. When he has resided there three consecutive years,

<sup>1</sup> See Addenda, p. 107.

cleared and cultivated ten acres, and complied with the conditions already named, the 100 acres will be granted absolutely to him. In order to make the conditions as to three years' residence as easy as possible, the settler may, from time to time, absent himself from the land in order to procure means of support for himself and family. Application may be made for Crown lands without any conditions of settlement, in which case the land applied for is advertised and sold by public auction at an upset price of one dollar an acre.

According to census of 1891, the occupied land amounted to four and a half million acres, of which one and a half million were improved, over one million being under crop, and nearly half a million acres in pasture, and some twelve thousand acres reserved to gardens and orchards.

#### AGRICULTURE

In 1898 there was an increased acreage sown, due mainly to the large importation of seed wheat and other agricultural seeds which were freely distributed through the Agricultural Societies in various districts, and also to the assistance in the construction of a sufficient number of modern flour-mills in different localities, in order to encourage the farmer in growing wheat. In 1898 there were about 29,000 acres in wheat, yielding 410,000 bushels, an increase of almost 100 per cent. since 1891. Owing to the requirements of the lumbermen hay and oats always find a ready sale, and last year there were produced in New Brunswick some 5,000,000 bushels of oats, an increase of nearly 2,000,000 bushels in seven years, and owing to the improved methods of farming, a yield of 27 bushels per acre, as against 19 some years ago. The production of hay was about 550,000 tons. There were also

increased quantities of barley, buckwheat, and potatoes grown last year.

The Government of New Brunswick a few years ago followed the example set by the Government of Ontario in encouraging farmers in different districts to produce butter and cheese by giving grants in aid of the erection of cheese and butter factories. There are in New Brunswick now some fifty-five cheese factories and fourteen butter factories in operation. The production of cheese last year (1898) amounted to nearly 850,000 lbs., valued at about £14,000, and the output of butter amounted to nearly £4000 in value. The establishment of these factories is a very considerable boon to the farmers in country districts, giving them a ready market for all the milk that they can produce. There is still a large field for increase in the production of butter, as not more than one-half of the butter consumed in the province is made there, the rest being imported from Ontario and Quebec. With the contemplated increase in cheese and butter factories during the next few years, New Brunswick should produce all the butter required, and largely increase its exportation of cheese.

## FINANCE

The financial affairs of the Province are in an exceedingly sound condition. The total indebtedness amounts to some £590,000, bearing interest at the rate of 3 and 4 per cent. The 3 per cent. bonds recently issued are selling at par. To set against this debt are the valuable Crown lands of the Province, comprising some 7,000,000 acres, which bring in a considerable revenue. Including the subsidy from the Dominion Government, the total revenue of the Province is about £150,000.

The above moderate indebtedness has been in-

curred in judicious expenditures for railways, roads, bridges, and educational purposes. With a continuance of wise and careful administration, it will not be long before New Brunswick Bonds—bearing 3 per cent. interest—will stand as high as any Colonial securities in the financial market.

### INDUSTRIES

Lumbering—that is, the getting out of timber and sawing same into deals and boards—is the chief industry of New Brunswick; but of recent years many new industries have been developed throughout the province, such as the manufacture of cotton, boots and shoes, furniture, products of iron, tanning extracts, leather, and, more recently, wood-pulp for paper-making. Some of these industries natural to New Brunswick are hampered greatly by the heavy duties imposed by the neighbouring United States on these products, and also by the restrictions imposed by France, where there is also a large market for the three forest products above named—namely, timber, tanning extract, and pulp; but these cannot be developed to their full extent till we have a direct line between New Brunswick or Canada and France, on account of the extra duties imposed on goods arriving by way of the States or England, which render trade impossible.

### FISHERIES

The fisheries include salmon, cod, mackerel, herring, shad, smelt, black-bass, trout, lobsters, and oysters.

There are important lobster-canning establishments all along the coast of the Strait of Northumberland, and a large business is carried on in the shipment of frozen salmon, trout, bass, and smelts to the New York



and New England markets. The fresh fish are kept in refrigerators, and shipped when the prices rule the highest in these markets, excellent facilities having been provided for rapid transit, both by rail and steamer.

### MINERALS

Coal is found, also gold, silver, lead, antimony, copper, iron, manganese, and other valuable minerals in considerable quantities, but none have been worked to any great extent. This is owing a good deal to the thick forest and underbush covering most of the country, large portions of which even now have been but superficially examined, and I have no doubt that the future will unveil considerable mineral wealth in this country.<sup>1</sup>

### GOVERNMENT

Besides its fair and proportionate representation in the Dominion Parliament at Ottawa there is the local parliament at Fredericton, in which there are forty-eight members elected on a very popular franchise. The executive government consists of seven members, and is responsible to the Assembly in the manner usual in the British Colonies. Leading members of the Local Government are the Hon. H. R. Emmerson, Premier and Chief Commissioner of the Board of Works; the Hon. L. J. Tweedie, Provincial Secretary and Receiver-General; the Hon. A. S. White, Attorney-General; while the Hon. A. G. Blair ably represents the Province in the Dominion Cabinet.

### EDUCATION

Education is of the very best. Schools are free and undenominational, and may be primary, advanced, high, superior, or grammar schools, according to the

<sup>1</sup> See Addenda, p. 107.



extent of the needs of the district they are provided for. The keystone of the system is the University of New Brunswick, founded in 1828, to which a certain number of students from each county are admitted without the usual fees, and which has the power to grant University degrees.

### MILITIA

No colony should exceed Canada in aptness for military matters. Its inhabitants are mainly descended from soldiers and sailors disbanded at different periods, or from those men loyal to the British throne, whether soldier or civilian, who left the United States at the end of the War of Independence to cut out for themselves, in a new and wild land, homes where the dear old flag of England would still wave over their heads. This was the case in Nova Scotia between 1713 and 1749, and in New Brunswick in 1761, 1763, and 1783, and by the disbandment of regiments at various times since.

The different branches of the service in Canada wear the same uniforms as in the corresponding services in England. The finest regiments have often volunteered for service abroad when they thought their services might be of use to the mother country, and I would like to say that the cavalry regiment to which I belonged during the Soudan and Afghan troubles of 1885 volunteered to a man to serve in either of those countries. We were not a little disappointed when the Australian offer was accepted and our proffered services declined, but we hope to be more fortunate at some future time.

New Brunswick derives its name from the reigning house of England; loyalty to the Throne of England was its origin, and loyal to Queen and Empire it will remain.

## SPORT

As a sporting country, New Brunswick has few rivals. I do not say that big game, or perhaps even small game, is as abundant there as in many other countries, but what I do say is that, with good sport, you have a grand, health-giving, and exhilarating climate, and the most beautiful surroundings in which to enjoy it.

With all this, you have the most noble quarry in the whole world in the moose, not only on account of his size and the magnificent trophy afforded by his head and spacious antlers, but also in this, that he is one of the most difficult of animals to approach and to get a shot at.

The caribou is another noble inhabitant of the New Brunswick woods, of the same species as the Lapland reindeer, though a larger and finer animal, as the Canadian moose is also in comparison with his representative in Europe, the Norwegian elk.

Some years ago, when staying at Fredericton, I went out with my brother to a noted district for moose and caribou to enjoy a week's sport. We had a delightful drive over the crisp and sparkling snow to a fine old-fashioned settlement at Stanley, and there took to the woods in a rough sled with a driver and pair of horses, very comfortably stowed away amidst buffalo robes spread over a goodly quantity of loose hay. We stopped overnight at a half-way log hut provided for the teams going to and fro during the winter by the large lumber kings operating in that district of country, and kept in order by a man who acted as hotel manager, steward and cook, butler and boots all in one, and a very sociable evening we spent together, with good cheer in the shape of salt pork and fish, and nothing stronger than very strong tea with no milk, but with a little molasses to sweeten it.

Next day by noon we arrived at a large logging camp, containing probably twenty-five or thirty men all in one log camp or house, the men provided with sleeping accommodation on two long shelves four feet above the floor, and running from end to end of the shanty. It also contained a large red-hot stove, although the cooking was done in a log-house set apart for the purpose.

Here we met our hunter-guide, whose business it was to provide fresh meat for this lumbering camp. We started off with him at once and one other man to pull our toboggan with our kit and supplies. We took to our snow-shoes and made a detour through the woods with our guide in search of game. We had not gone far when we came on a herd of fine caribou feeding on the moss and lichen on the tops of the spruce trees recently cut down by the lumbermen of the camp we had just left. Creeping up noiselessly on our snow-shoes over the soft snow from cover to cover, four fine animals fell to our guns. It was getting dusk, so we left them, after covering them over with snow and branches, to return and carry them off on the morrow.

With buoyant spirits, rendered the more so by the clear, crisp, and invigorating atmosphere, we soon overtook our man with the toboggan on the frozen level surface of the Clearwater River, a branch of the Miramichi, and were soon at our rendezvous for the next few days, a trapper's hut on the bank of the river amongst the great spruce, pine, and hemlock trees. We quickly had some choice portions of our caribou cut in steaks and frizzling in the pan, and also four or five partridges, or rather forest grouse, impaled on the ends of sticks stuck in the ground, roasting before the fire.

We made a most excellent repast while listening to the highly-coloured tales of our guide and our trapper friend, not always confined to strict veracity, I fear.

We next proceeded to hunt for the still nobler game and the real object of our journey, the moose. The snow had fallen daily of late, so that it was with difficulty we novices could see the traces of moose at all. Not so with our experienced guide, but his difficulty was rather that the spoor was too abundant, that is, that there were too many moose about, and that, having picked out the tracks of a fine big bull, he would lose it again from its crossing and recrossing those of other moose, sometimes cows and calves, which, of course, are not fair prey to the true sportsman, and are now protected by law from interference. However, on the third or fourth day, our guide had located our quarry, and starting at daybreak the next morning, we were upon him, but before we could get a shot he disappeared as if by magic. We followed his tracks in the snow all that day, and so keen were we that at nightfall we decided to sleep in the snow and give him chase again next morning. This we did, and our persistence was crowned with success. His magnificent head and antlers are now amongst my most cherished possessions.

Of course there is a great deal of other game in this sportsman's paradise, only eight days' sail from England, which time will not permit me to more than mention, such as deer, lynx, fox, marten, musk-rat, and beaver, with great abundance of wood-grouse or partridge, wild geese and ducks, and, indeed, wild fowl of all descriptions.

The game laws are excellent and strictly carried out, so that game of all sorts is now becoming more numerous instead of the reverse.

New Brunswick has been called by the Indian "the land of many waters," and it is needless to say that its inland fishing is about the very best in the world. Salmon, trout, and black-bass all afford excellent sport.



Englishmen should not neglect this field, and I shall be very glad to afford every information to those who desire to try it.

#### ABORIGINES

There are settlements of Indians in different parts of the country; these belong both to the Miamaes and Malicite tribes. They were always great friends of the French, as against the English, and were always very well treated by the former. However, the Indians of New Brunswick have not much to complain of in this respect, as there is said to have been no material decrease in their numbers since the first settlement of the country, which, as you know, can hardly be said of any other part of America.

The Indians of Acadia were essentially a race of hunters and warriors and despised agriculture, and to this day they are averse to steady labour in the fields or in the woods, though some work at the saw-mills and also at peeling hemlock bark in the season, but they are chiefly useful as guides and canoe-men.

Of course they are perfectly peaceable, and although the Indian is often said to be morose and taciturn, at least my own experience has not accorded with this. I remember on one occasion when I made a journey of several weeks, on a sporting expedition up the Restigouche and Upsalquitch, when we had three canoes manned by two Indians each, the Indians were remarkably loquacious round the camp fire at night, recounting their stories in their own language and full of fun and laughter, one of them being evidently the clown of the party. I may say there were only one or two of them who were not strict teetotalers, being so brought up by the Roman Catholic mission opposite Campbelltown.

However, in the old days they did not require



agriculture, as game was extremely abundant, and about the time when De La Tour and Charnazay were fighting with each other for possession of the country, as many as 3000 moose skins were collected on the St. John each year; wild fowls in incredible numbers were found on the marsh lands and up the rivers, as indeed they are to-day. Charlevoix states that near St. John geese laid their eggs so abundantly that they alone might have sustained the whole population. Lescarbaut relates the same in regard to the St. Croix.

Besides this, there were abundance of fish, and especially salmon, which the Indians not only captured with hook and line, but with torch and spear, which was their favourite method, and in which they are extremely expert to-day, this mode of capturing salmon being permitted to the Indians alone.

They cooked their meat and fish by broiling it on live coals, or roasting it on the ends of sticks around the fire, but soup was their favourite food, which they boiled in a spacious wooden caldron made for the purpose in the stump of a large tree hollowed out by fire. The soup was boiled by dropping in red-hot stones, which as they cooled were replaced by others hot from the fire, until the meal was cooked. Their camping grounds were often chosen on account of these fixed caldrons, as naturally they were not readily moved.

Wild grapes, it also appears, formed part of the food of the St. John River Indians.

Although much has been said as to the treachery of the Red Indians and of their attacking defenceless settlements, they were certainly a chivalrous race before the advent of the European, and were distinguished for their honesty; and before they became demoralised by civilisation, previous to going to war they were in the habit of informing their enemies by sending them symbols to put them on their guard. They are very

expert in making bark canoes, birch dishes, snow-shoes, and moccasins.

#### WEST INDIES AND CANADA

Our Colonial Secretary has said, and not only said, but given it substantial effect too, that he is desirous of favouring and helping onward the "undeveloped estates" of the Empire. Well, I humbly represent one, and that is New Brunswick, and I will include the other maritime provinces of Canada. I will even go further and say that we have behind these the magnificent and unlimited and but very partially developed estates of the whole grand Dominion of Canada. Not far off, we have another "estate" that is suffering vicissitudes of fortune at the present time, although largely developed in the past—I refer to the West Indies.

Now, what the one group of colonies produces, the other does not, or not to any great extent; in fact, the one being tropical and the other situated in the colder regions of the North, the one just requires what the other produces, and *vice versa*.

The West Indies have been reduced to their present condition largely and, I think I may even say almost entirely, by the duties imposed against their products in foreign countries, and most of all from the bounties given by these foreign countries on the exported beet-root or other sugars from their countries to Great Britain.

This is such a great advantage, such an enormous boon, to the English consumer, that the Government of this great country cannot see its way to tax foreign sugars for the benefit of our West Indian colonies, however fond of them we all may be. This is perhaps quite natural, at least we can perfectly understand it. But, if the value of these foreign-paid bounties is such

a substantial gain to this country, it would be a very gracious thing to do, and also a very just and entirely defensible one, to expend a portion of the money obtained at their expense to help our West Indian brother countrymen, by subsidising a line of steamers from the West Indian Islands to St. John, New Brunswick.

The West Indian Islands get most of their imported goods from the United States. The Canadian Pacific Railway has undertaken to help the Canadians to get a larger share of the business than they have at present, and to this end has accorded the same rates to St. John from the west as are current from the same shipping points to New York, and has recently published a report from an agent it has had in the West Indies making a study of the trade question.

The report shows the West Indian imports in detail. Most of the goods could be supplied as cheaply by Canadian manufacturers and farmers. Agricultural implements, bran, box material, butter, candles, confectionery, coal, eggs, fish, flour, canned and dried fruit, furniture, groceries, hay, ice, lumber, chilled meats, oats, provisions, peas and beans, sheep, and many other articles, now principally supplied by the United States, might be supplied by Canada. You will notice that all the articles named in this list of West Indian imports are imported also by England, so that the trade should not compete with the exports of the home country, but only with those of the United States.

On the other hand, we in Canada want their raw sugar for our refineries, their bananas and other fruit and tropical produce.

Since this was written we have had the Colonial Secretary's speech at Liverpool, in which he has announced that it is the intention of the British Govern-

ment to substantially help the West Indian colonies, and I venture to think what I have just suggested would be one way of effectually helping them to build up and secure a future and permanent outlet for their products in a new field.

#### CHIEF RIVERS AND TOWNS

The St. John River is over 500 miles long and drains half the province, flowing through the most beautiful country, with farming lands on either bank and valuable timber lands on its numerous tributaries. It is navigable for steamers 86 miles, as far as Fredericton, and for small steamers 126 miles to Grand Falls, and after that break, 65 miles farther. A point of interest is Jemseg, at the outlet of Grand Lake (which is 30 miles long, and 3 to 9 broad); it was a famous fort in the old colony days, and the scene of many conflicts. Jemseg was taken from the French in 1654 by Cromwell's expedition under Sedgwick.

Down to this point the river flows through a level farming country with wooded borders, intervale lands, and with many islands. South of Jemseg the banks become hilly, and the river itself a long succession of lake expanses. Next we come to Washademoak Lake and River.

The Kennebecasis flows in about 5 miles above its mouth from behind a coast range. It finally reaches the sea at the head of St. John harbour, flowing through a narrow gorge between walls of rock 100 feet high, and here is presented the unique phenomenon of a Reversible Fall.

The river, which at Fredericton is half a mile wide and in its lower stretches much wider, is here forced to flow for 400 yards through a gorge only 400 feet across. The tide in St. John harbour rises from 25 to 30 feet, and the gorge is so narrow that it can



neither admit the tide quickly nor discharge the river promptly; for the tide recedes faster than the narrow outlet can permit the water to flow through. At low water the level of the river is 11 to 15 feet above the sea, and at high water the level of the sea is 8 to 12 feet above the river. There are therefore two falls at every tide, one in and one out.

Four times in every twenty-four hours there is a short period of equilibrium when vessels can pass in or out. The spectacle here presented twice every day is probably seen nowhere else in the world.

Another unique phenomenon is that of the bore on the Petticodiac at the head of the Bay of Fundy. The tide, 25 to 30 feet at St. John, 45 feet at Sackville, and at Shubenacadie even 50 feet or more, runs at the mouth of the bay, at Briar Island, at the rate of 3 miles, and thence proceeds up the funnel-shaped estuary till at Chignecto it attains the speed of 6 to 7 miles and rushes up the Petticodiac River, the foremost wave reaching 5 or 6 feet high; Aulac and Tantramar from mere brooks at low tide become rivers 2 to 3 miles wide.

In this neighbourhood are situated the important town of Moncton, and the machine shops and chief offices of the Interecolonial Railroad, with about 12,000 inhabitants; Dorchester, the county town of the prosperous farming county of Westmorland, with a population of about 2000; and Sackville, the chief farming centre of the county, with an important College and University; while at Memramcook is situated the Roman Catholic College, which is so well known throughout America that it receives pupils from all parts of Canada and the United States.

Towns on the St. John River—St. John, population 50,000; Fredericton, the capital of the Province, about 9000; Woodstock and Edmonston.

The St. Croix, 25 miles long, forms part of the

United States boundary; the chief towns on it are St. Andrews, a winter port, with the finest harbour on the coast; and St. Stephen, a stirring lumbering and manufacturing town.

The Miramichi, the second river of New Brunswick, is 220 miles long, and reaches with its affluents all the interior of the country; it is navigable for 35 miles. The chief towns are Newcastle, Chatham, Douglastown, and Millerton. The district was formerly noted for wooden ship-building, now for the manufacture of lumber, tanning extract, and wood-pulp for paper-making, as well as a large and increasing fishing industry. This, like all the rivers flowing into the clear waters of the gulf, is famous for salmon.

The Richibucto, river and town, with fair harbour and fishing; lumbering, and lobster-canning industries.

The Nepisiquit, a turbulent river with a fall of 140 feet. Bathurst is the chief town on its banks.

The Restigouche, a beautiful clear river, with some of the finest salmon-fishing in the world, emptying into the head of the Bay of Chaleur; tributaries, Metapedia, Patapedia, and Upsalquitch, all famous for their salmon-fishing and other sport; the latter river comes from the lake of the same name, falls 400 feet in less than 2 miles over beautiful cascades. Towns on its banks, Campbellton and Dalhousie, centres of considerable importance for the production and manufacture of lumber.

## PLEASURE AND AMUSEMENTS

Boating, driving, riding, picnics, camping-out parties, and field-sports give the people ample opportunity for enjoyment during summer. In winter they have the so-called "Winter Sports" of sleighing, skating, tobogganing, snow-shoeing, and ice-boating, and social

entertainments of all kinds which would surprise the inhabitants of towns in England of the same size.

## ADDENDA

*Petroleum.*—Since this paper was read before the Imperial Institute in January 1898, an oil belt has been discovered, extending practically from the south-east corner to the north-west corner of the province. The latest information is that the oil is of good quality, as excellent samples have been taken in more than one locality.

The law relating to mining and the royalties payable to the Government was amended, in the last General Assembly, by adding the following clause:—

*Oil.*—Five per cent. of the output delivered at the well's mouth, or five per cent. of the commercial value thereof, at the option of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

## FREE GRANTS

By the Crown Lands Settlement Act of 1899, the conditions on which Free Grants are made have been greatly simplified and improved, and the taking up of grants of 100 acres in the new districts where settlements are to be made should be greatly encouraged thereby, as will be seen by the following extracts from the new law:—

The Surveyor-General shall cause surveys to be made of the Crown Lands in the different counties of the province suitable for settlement, and shall cause public roads to be made through such lands, and shall have the same laid off in one-hundred-acre lots on both sides of such roads.

Free Grants for such lots may be made to such persons as may become actual settlers.

Such person shall be of the age of eighteen years or upwards.

(1) The allottee shall commence clearing and improving within one month after publication of the approval of his application, and shall within three months after improve on his lot to the value of 20 dollars.

(2) And shall within one year build a house thereon, fit for habitation, of not less dimensions than 16 feet by 20 feet, and reside thereon.

(3) And shall chop down and cultivate not less than two acres, by sowing or planting the same.

(4) Chop down, cultivate, and clear not less than ten acres within three years, and shall each year actually and continuously cultivate all the land chopped down during such three years.

(5) Shall reside actually and continuously upon such land for the term of three years next succeeding such publication, and thence up to the issue of the grant, except that absence during the months of July, August, January, February, and March in any year shall not be held to be a cessation of such residence, provided such land be cultivated as aforesaid.

Compliance with the conditions above mentioned within a less period than three years, and actual residence up to the time of such compliance, shall entitle such allottee to a grant.

In any district where lands have been laid out for settlement, and not less than ten settlers have taken up lands therein, the Surveyor-General may, at the expiration of three years, give a bonus of one hundred dollars to the settler in such district who has erected the best house and outbuildings, and has his farm in the best condition.

In the case of any allottee during the first five years after the approval of his application has been



published, whether before or after he has obtained his grant, prospecting and finding minerals on his land, he shall have prior right to a lease under the General Mining Act, of mining rights on such land, and any minerals mined thereon shall be exempt from royalty for a period of five years after the taking out of such lease.

# NOVA SCOTIA

By JAMES S. MACDONALD

(*Of Halifax, N.S.*)

IN furnishing a brief paper on my native province, Nova Scotia, I feel at the outset the difficulty of presenting in a few pages but a brief outline of the long, varied, and interesting record of this, the eldest colony of Britain. In condensing, I will endeavour to avoid the lumber of historical articles, statistics, and minute references to unimportant facts, and only give those leading events without which the paper would be valueless. Connected as Nova Scotia and her people are by ties of blood and tradition with Britain, we are gratified to find that the indifference with which the colonies were treated in former years is rapidly changing to a vital interest, which will be well appreciated by those younger branches of the empire; this interest will prove beneficial to all concerned, it will preserve and strengthen their attachment to Britain, thus contributing to the stability of all.

The history of every country in Europe commences in the region of fable, and the accounts given of the early ages at all, are at best plausible conjectures. The discovery of the western continent of America is in this respect just the reverse. The discovery was an event of modern occurrence, and was accompanied by the important art of printing, which, by multiplying the copies, preserved the journals of those who explored and settled the New World. But if the materials of American history are unlike those of Europe, the events

are even more different. The progress and change from a state of nature towards an elevated civilisation is always slow, and the troublous settlement of America affords an interesting study and subject for contemplation.

The claim of Britain on Nova Scotia was founded upon discovery. During the tranquil reign of Henry VII., commerce and manufacture increased to such an extent as to attract to England merchants from all parts of Europe, among them a Venetian named Cabot, an experienced mariner. The short route to India was his hobby, and he so influenced the king that he was granted a commission in 1496, with powers to sail with three ships to seek and discover all the isles, regions, and lands of heathens unknown to Christians. This commission included powers to his three sons, Sebastian, Saucas, and Louis, who were to accompany him. Henry reserved to himself the dominion of all discovered. Thus in this voyage of discovery the object of the sovereign was dominion, while gain stimulated the subject. Two caravels were fitted out at the public expense, freighted by merchants of London and Bristol, manned by three hundred men, and sailed from Bristol on 4th May 1497. Sailing west they sighted land, much earlier than they had anticipated, on 24th June 1497, which *prima vista* is now determined to have been the "Sugar-Loaf," a lofty peak of the Cape North range, in Cape Breton, eastern Nova Scotia; so that the colony has a claim to prominence in the fact that it possesses the point upon which the discoverer's eye first rested when he so unexpectedly found America. Thus Cabot in the name of Henry VII. had discovered and acquired the continent of America before Columbus had visited any part of the mainland, his voyages up to that date not having extended beyond the islands in the Gulf of Mexico. The discovery of Cabot in 1497, and the formal possession taken of the country

in Elizabeth's reign, are considered by Britain as the foundation of the right and title of the Crown of England to the whole of its possessions in North America.

Here I may say that the constitution of England, as it stood at the discovery of America, had nothing in its nature providing for colonies. The colonies have therefore at different periods of their growth experienced very different treatment. At first they were considered lands without the limits of the "realm of England," and not annexed to it. The king assumed the right of property and government of the settlers, "his liege subjects," to the preclusion of the jurisdiction of the State. The king called them "his possessions abroad," not parts and parcels of the realm, and as not yet under the Crown. Upon this assumption the colonies were first settled by the king's licence, the governments established by Royal Charter, while the people emigrating to those colonies considered themselves out of the realm, and the king their only sovereign lord. This went on until the reign of Charles II., when Parliament asserted the right of government, and interfered in their regulation and guidance. So much for Britain's right to North America. After the American revolution in 1776, the colonies preserved to England attained freedom from taxation, all duties, taxes, and assessments being paid to and for the use of the colony or province alone. The Colonial Office directed, but the colonies attained a liberal share of self-government.

For several years subsequent to Cabot's discovery, an indifference to the new region appears to have prevailed in England. The venture of the merchants concerned in freighting the expedition was not a profitable one, and other adventures were cultivated for trade by those connected with Cabot. The French, then very aggressive traders, knowing this, sent Baron de



Lery out, with powers to make a settlement, in 1518; but he returned, his mission having failed. The second attempt was made by London barristers, under the direction of a Mr. Hoare, of the Inner Temple, in 1536, but it came to grief. Then, in 1583, Elizabeth encouraged Sir Humphrey Gilbert to cross to the new region, which he did, and took formal possession for England, but the expedition failed, and Gilbert was lost on his way back to England. The next attempt and the first successful settlement was made by the French, under the Sieur de Monts, in 1603, when Port Royal was founded. The name of this place was changed to Annapolis Royal when taken by the English in later conquests. In 1604, Sir William Alexander, a Scottish knight and favourite of James I., received a grant of Acadia as it was then called, and sailed to settle the country with a large band of adventurers. The king, to encourage the settlement, created a new order of knights called "Baronets of Nova Scotia." The baronial lands of these new knights were of the most shadowy description, but still they served to attract attention to the new settlement across the seas, and the descendants of those baronets of Nova Scotia to-day, ninety-one in number, hold their titles as proudly as any other of their honours. Nova Scotia may be a grander name than Acadia, by which the colony was previous to this date known, but it has in later days been a great drawback to the Province, as it has been confounded with Nova Zembla, and amusing diplomatic mistakes are recorded, by which Nova Scotia has been confounded with a miserable Russian island away up in the Arctic waters. From 1603 to 1763, when France renounced all claims to her once proud possessions in North America, Nova Scotia, and her eastern annex Cape Breton, became the very shuttlecocks of European diplomats, France and England alternately in treaties now acquir-

ing and again relinquishing possession; the English claims founded on discovery, the French on settlement. The first settlements of the French in Acadia were made at a very early period, being four years before the smallest hut was erected in Canada. As early as 1700, the French fisheries on the shores of Cape Breton were extensive and valuable. From Cape North to St. Peter's every harbour and port had its contingent of fishermen from Havre, St. Malo, and other fishing centres of France. Several large fishing companies, with head-quarters at Paris, Marseilles, and Brest, fitted out and equipped large fleets of vessels for the Cape Breton fisheries. The men to man these fleets were largely drawn from a strange source—the galleys and prisons of France. Heavy bonds were given by the companies for the men selected, a deposit of ten livres was paid to government for each man, and if during the voyage the man died or was injured, one hundred livres were exacted as an indemnity to government. These criminals were well cared for. They were mostly active men, and made good fishermen; they were well fed and clothed, and had experienced surgeons to attend them when ill. The change to the liberty enjoyed while on these voyages was, although limited, preferable to the galleys, and the majority proved satisfactory to the companies; and although opportunities for escape at times offered, few availed themselves of the chance—better stay where they were than fall into the hands of the savages in the trackless wilds of Cape Breton. Thus at a very early time France solved a very difficult social problem of the present day, viz. "What shall we do with our criminals?" The French returns of 1710 give an estimate of 23,000 men, employed in 2100 vessels, ranging from shallops to square-rigged caravels, on the coast of Cape Breton that year. The fleet sailed from France in April, and arrived on the Cape

Breton coast in May, fished until August, and planned to be all back to France by 1st October. The enormous revenue derived from this extensive fishery, the cradle it proved for manning the French navy, the control it gave France of the fish-markets of the Mediterranean and valuable centres on the continent of Europe, the great commercial value of the business involved, made the French nation keenly alive to the preservation of Cape Breton. They well knew its political as well as its intrinsic value. They considered it the key to the St. Lawrence, and so in 1713, by the Treaty of Utrecht, although Nova Scotia was lost to France, she retained her most valued possession, the island of Cape Breton. For the protection of these vast fisheries, the great fortress of Louisburg was built, at the time considered a triumph of the engineering skill of the great Vauban, who warranted it impregnable; it was defended by 400 cannon and garrisoned at times by 10,000 men. This great citadel became not only the refuge of the fleets of France—its magnificent harbour being capable of accommodating an enormous number of vessels—but it became a menace to English power in North America. Strange to say, from some unexplained cause, after the building of Louisburg the fisheries rapidly declined; the withdrawal of men from the fishing vessels for the navy perhaps may account in part for it, as France at that time maintained an immense fleet at sea. In 1750 the French returns show only 600 vessels sailed from France in that spring for Cape Breton; but by this date many vessels engaged in the fisheries remained in Cape Breton harbours all winter, settlements having been made at Ingonish, Port Dauphin, and Spanish River, all good shelters, so that a much larger number than reported may have been engaged in the still profitable Cape Breton fisheries. The French navy for years made

Louisburg their base of operation against the British colonies, and annoyed them to such an extent that the provincialists determined to attack this great stronghold, and if possible put an end to French power so near their shores. It looked like a foolhardy undertaking, but, favoured by a combination of fortunate circumstances, the gallantry of the New England troops carried them through to victory, and Louisburg was captured in the summer of 1755. A subsequent treaty restored it to France, but in 1758 it was again invested by Britain's land and sea forces, under General Wolfe, and it fell. After its capture it was determined to demolish the fortifications, and so this great stronghold disappeared. So extensive were the defences, and so well built the walls, that it cost £3000 in powder to destroy and obliterate this famous citadel of French power. After its capture Cape Breton and its great fisheries were neglected by England, and decay and ruin marked the site and surroundings of this second Carthage.

Previous to 1749, since which date England has held uninterrupted possession of Nova Scotia, the Province was well known to traders and fishermen for its fish and furs, but the settlements were unimportant and far apart. Annapolis in the west, and Canso in the east, were frequented, but the great seaboard was but seldom visited. The attention of the British Government had been repeatedly called by the New England colonists to the importance of planting upon the shores of Nova Scotia some prominent military settlement, to counteract the great French influence possessed by Louisburg. At last these representations had effect. Britain was at the time at peace, and burdened by thousands of disbanded soldiers, men who had bravely fought their country's battles all over Europe, but who were a fearful encumbrance in time of peace—indeed, to the



disgrace of the nation they had so well served, the majority of these poor men were starving. It was determined to make a virtue of a necessity, a settlement in Nova Scotia was decided upon, and Hon. Edward Cornwallis was entrusted with the important work of founding the settlement. In June 1749 he landed at Halifax, with about 5000 souls as utterly unfitted as mortals could be for the troubles before them. The greater number were good enough at fighting, but quite useless for facing the privations of the wilderness. Cornwallis proved a hero; he worked well, brought order out of confusion, counselled, encouraged, and protected the settlers, until with broken health he relinquished his command in 1752, his work utterly unappreciated by the Government of the day. The troubles and labours of the settlers were greatly increased by the annoyance and cruelty of the Indians, who, incited by the French, barbarously cut off all stragglers into the forest surrounding the town; and no greater enemies had the settlers than the Acadians or Neutrals, as they were called, who had been allowed to remain in Nova Scotia after the conquest in 1713. For forty years they had had the protection of the British Government, had retained their farms and property, had the free exercise of their religion, paid no taxes; but they had firmly decided not to become friendly to the British Government, and steadily refused to take the oath of allegiance. Their French friends at Quebec, trusting to events to regain possession of the Province, spared no effort in keeping the British settlements disturbed by the Indians and Acadians. The Abbé Reynal, their great apologist, describes them as living in a state of Arcadian simplicity, with all the virtues of angels. They had intermarried greatly with the Indians, and the French priests had free control of them, and as a matter of faith both Indians and Acadians thought

the extirpation of the English heretics a very commendable thing indeed. Against foes so crafty, cowardly, and treacherous, the poor settlers had great trouble to maintain their ground in the endless fight.

By 1755, the trouble increasing, and the Government, finding that all efforts to conciliate the Acadians were fruitless, that they refused to take the oath of allegiance and were irreconcilable, that they would not live peaceably in the country, nor allow the settlers to do so, determined on their expulsion from the Province. In the autumn of 1755, 7000 of them in all, men, women, and children, were shipped away to the southern colonies, principally Virginia and the Carolinas; great suffering ensued, and much sympathy went forth for the people who had to leave the country for the country's good. No doubt there were innocent exceptions, but the majority were a lot of cruel scoundrels, who helped the Indians in the butchery of the settlers, and who well deserved the justice dealt them by a long-suffering Government. Longfellow, who had doubtless read Abbé Reynal's apology for the Acadians, who in the presentation of their virtues suppressed their crimes, founded upon the expulsion his beautiful poem "Evangeline," as beautiful a vision of romance and poetry as ever flitted through a poet's brain, but as baseless in fact as visions are made of. The lands left by the Acadians were speedily taken up by many from the colonies of New York and Massachusetts. The new settlers proved a valuable acquisition; they were good, sterling, thrifty men, and helped greatly towards the tranquillity of the Province, so that a quarter of a century later, when all was riot and rebellion in the revolting colonies, Nova Scotia was loyal to the core, a conspicuous example of devotion to the old flag, which greatly helped to keep Canada—restless at the time—firm for the Crown.

The Governor of Nova Scotia at the date of the American revolution deserves remembrance. Michael Franklin was a man born to rule. He was a native of Plymouth, endowed with great talents, who landed in Halifax in 1767, and who without influence rose to place and prominence in the colony. Having a small fortune at the time, £500, he at once engaged in business. Rum was a legitimate article of trade, and money went further than it does to-day. He opened two shops, one at the Military Depôt, the other at the Naval Yard, the two extremes of the town, and announced that he would serve free rum to all who would call at his shops before eight o'clock in the morning. As a matter of course he had customers; his rum was pronounced good; his patrons, who had honoured him by calling so early for his free liquor, were in honour bound to drink later in the day at their own expense. His patrons called often, his business increased; he became an importer, shut up his shops and sold it by the puncheon; was appointed a magistrate, became a churchwarden, raised a volunteer regiment, was chosen colonel, was elected a member of the local legislature—all this before he had been seven years in Halifax. Shortly after this, a vacancy having occurred in the Executive Government, he was called to the Council Board, and finally in 1775 he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia. His great popularity was the mainspring of his success; but he backed it with energy, probity, and honour, elements admired if not always practised in a new settlement. Franklin, with his great knowledge of events, his judgment, and strong common sense, greatly helped to keep the Province loyal. He received great credit for his services at the time, but eventually received the patriot's reward—the cold shoulder from the Government he had served so faithfully. His brilliant career, his rapid coming to

the front in so strange a place as a Crown colony, where patronage is indispensably necessary, shows the material Franklin was made of. By this date the colony had grown considerably, the majority of the original settlers had passed away; the trials and privations of an exile to shores so rough, and to a life in the wilds for which they were so totally unfitted, had proved too much for them; but their places were taken by many from the southern provinces and the old country. An emigration of Scottish mercantile people in 1761, most of them with considerable wealth, proved a boon to Halifax at the time, and gave a tone to the commerce and social life of the colony, which up to the time of their arrival had been greatly wanted. In April 1775 the revolution in the American colonies began, blood was shed, and war ensued. It ended in September 1783, when independence was gained. That autumn 13,000 loyalists from the States came to Nova Scotia; many of them located at Halifax, the remainder scattered through the Province. They were mostly people of position and education, and had left the colonies, where the majority of them had been born, for their loyalty and allegiance to the king. They were welcomed warmly in Nova Scotia, became leading men in the community, and many of their descendants are still prominent among the energetic and progressive men of Nova Scotia.

In 1784 the settlement of Shelburne took place; 14,000 emigrant loyalists came from New York and built a substantial wooden town, at the head of a magnificent harbour, on the western shore of Nova Scotia. In their haste to settle they overlooked the fact that a town requires a country to support it. Surrounded by a trackless forest, far from the other settlements of the Province, the emigrants, unaccustomed to such a life, could not long exist. The



majority were people of refinement and education, many of them wealthy ; they brought considerable property with them, as they had been promised Government patronage, and had hopes that the new city would, perhaps, be the seat of Government. In this they were disappointed ; it was made a military station, a garrison town, 3000 troops being after a time stationed there. For a time the place flourished, but the dreary and lonely surroundings soon pressed fatally on the settlers. One by one they gradually left the place, many died, others settled in different parts of the Province or returned to the States, the town fell into decay, the military were withdrawn to Halifax, so that in the course of twenty years but the ruins and remains of this most promising settlement were left to the few survivors of a most ambitious undertaking.

In 1794 the Duke of Kent, father of her Majesty, was appointed Commander-in-chief of the Forces in Nova Scotia. He resided at Halifax, which by this date had grown to a strong garrison town, at times four and five regiments being stationed in the town and province. He was a martinet of the old school, and most strict disciplinarian. His hobby was to keep the large force under him at work, and by the exercise of this commendable idea he largely benefited the Province. Under his directions, seconded by the Government, he had roads constructed around Halifax and vicinity, and a military post-road to Annapolis in the western part of the Province. These roads proved of great value in helping to open up the country to immigrants, and contributed greatly to the comfort of the colony. His residence on Bedford Basin, near Halifax, still called the "Prince's Lodge," was most superbly equipped and furnished. For several years it was the centre of British America for elegant society and unbounded hospitality ; and in after years he declared to his friends that the happiest days of his life

were spent in the lodge he had erected on Bedford Basin while in command of Halifax.

In 1796, 500 Maroons, native Caribs of Jamaica, arrived at Halifax and remained there four years. They were exiled to Nova Scotia, as they had proved of vast trouble to Jamaica, burning sugar plantations and murdering the slaves, who were a different race from themselves. They proved of no service to Nova Scotia, and in 1800 they were deported to Sierra Leone, West Coast of Africa. There they scattered, and most of them became slave-catchers for the Arab traders. In the course of twenty-five years they helped to depopulate a broad swath across Africa to the eastern coast. Courageous and muscular, they were natural-born fighters, and the little knowledge they had acquired of civilisation appeared to have the effect of increasing their fiendish propensities. They became a terror to the part of Africa they were located in. In 1841 a small remnant of them in their old age returned to Jamaica; the majority had fallen in battle. The explanation given for sending these demons in human shape to Nova Scotia was, that it was hoped the severe winters of the Province would have soon finished them, but their toughness and health stood four years' strain, till they had to be removed for the welfare of Nova Scotia to Sierra Leone.

From 1800 to 1830 several governors of the Province during that time deserve notice, one in particular, a man of advanced ideas, Earl Dalhousie. He was a good administrator, encouraged agriculture, founded a college which is to-day the leading university in the maritime provinces, and in every way proved himself worthy of the trust given him. James Kempt, Sir Peregrine Maitland, and Sir Colin Campbell, all tried soldiers, also gave good satisfaction as governors and friends of the people. Under Lord Falkland's administration the battle for right, and

responsible government, was fought out and finally won by the exertions of the patriot Joseph Howe, who during a long life was ever in the van, leading on the progress of Nova Scotia. Several governors of lesser note followed Falkland, until 1867, when, Britain encouraging the movement for confederating the various provinces in North America under one Central Government, the matter was after considerable agitation consummated, and Nova Scotia became part of the Dominion of Canada. Having thus briefly touched upon the leading events in the history of the Province, from the earliest time to the date when Nova Scotia became absorbed into the Dominion, I will now give an outline of the position, appearance, climate, and resources of the Province.

Nova Scotia, the most eastern province of the Dominion, and nearest Great Britain, is situated between  $43^{\circ}$  and  $47^{\circ}$  north latitude, and  $60^{\circ}$  and  $70^{\circ}$  west longitude, and consists of a peninsula connected by a narrow isthmus with New Brunswick and the rest of the American Continent. Its area is about 300 miles in length and 80 to 100 in breadth. The island of Cape Breton, forming the eastern part of the Province, is separated by a narrow channel one mile wide, called the Strait of Canso. The shores of Nova Scotia, not including Cape Breton, which will be described separately, are everywhere indented with excellent harbours, there being more than double the number capable of accommodating ships of the largest class than on the entire eastern seaboard of the United States from Maine to Mexico. No part of the Province is more than thirty miles from navigable waters. Between Halifax and the eastern extremity of the Province are twenty-six excellent ports, twelve capable of accommodating ships of the line, the remainder with capacity to shelter fair-sized merchantmen, while west of Halifax are fifteen ports and harbours, several of

magnificent capacity and beauty. Prominent beyond all others in Nova Scotia or North America, stands Halifax Harbour, easy of access, deep, free from rocks or reefs, and sufficiently capacious to contain the United navies of Britain, France, America, and Germany, and still have anchorage to spare. The value of this magnificent landlocked harbour to Britain and the Dominion, its vast extent and situation as the eastern outlet of British North America, cannot be over-estimated.

It is the naval station for Britain's North American fleet, and at times from ten to fifteen vessels are anchored at the dockyard. In extent Nova Scotia contains about 20,000 square miles. Its scenery is varied and beautiful; the surface of the country is generally undulating, its hills seldom exceeding 600 feet. The most remarkable cliffs on its coast are Aspotogan on the south side, and Blomidon on the Bay of Fundy, each from 600 to 700 feet in height. Its numerous lakes, rivers, and harbours, its broad bays studded with islands, its many brooks and streams, relieve by their endless variety, and embellish a country from its variety of scenes naturally picturesque. The Bay of Fundy, which washes with its mighty tide the western counties of the Province, deserves a passing notice. Its tide has a rise and fall of 60 feet; the impetuosity of the current is remarkable. The upper part of the bay, called the Basin of Minas, is a large reservoir, which receives the waters of eleven rivers; from thence they escape between Cape Blomidon and Cape Split toward the ocean. This great current has been a study for scientists for the past three hundred years. Humboldt spent two summers on its shores, on his return from South America, in investigation and close observation. The change of air produced by these rapid currents is conducive to health, and renders the air in that part of Nova Scotia, loaded as it is with ozone, salubrious and agreeable. The



great daily ebb of this tide makes the draining of dykes and meadows attended with ease. Many thousand acres of dyked lands are on this bay. Alluvial washings made by the deposits of the tides and dyked, nothing can exceed it in fertility. The scenery of the Bay of Fundy is picturesque and varied, here by the abrupt cliff with its woody summit, there by the verdant meadow or by the cheerful scenes of civilisation. The beautiful succession of valleys bordering the bay are protected in the background by ranges of hills, which keep the fogs which at times envelop the coast from coming over, thus sheltering and protecting the interior, and giving a higher temperature than might be expected in the latitude. The Annapolis, the great fruit-producing valley of Nova Scotia, owes much of its value and fertility to this fortunate natural peculiarity. In the various counties of the Province, eighteen in number, are to be found the most lovely pastoral scenes of beauty and fertility, which cannot be matched in any other of the dominions of Great Britain. Every county has some production or advantage peculiar to itself; in some the soil, in others the minerals, in others the timber products; fruit appears to yield well everywhere, and is rapidly making Nova Scotia known as one of the best fruit-producing countries on the globe. And here I may have a word as to climate. It is well suited to all who are even in moderate health. It is healthy and pleasant. The sky is serene the greater part of the year. The air temperate, and there very seldom occurs a day too hot or too cold for travelling; agreeable clear weather is the rule. The ground throughout the Province is generally covered with snow from 25th December to 10th March. Springs are backward, but when vegetation commences it is very rapid. The summer heat is moderate and regular. The autumns are beautiful, the temperature similar to that of May, a fine clear elastic

air, which gives a fine tone to the system and cheerfulness to the spirits. The autumn weather continues sometimes until first week in December, with this change only, that as the season advances the air at night becomes colder. The extreme cold experienced in every other part of the Dominion is unknown in Nova Scotia; its insular position may account for this. The proximity of the Gulf Stream is at times thought to have something to do with it, but it is too far away from the nearest point of Nova Scotia to make any appreciable difference in the temperature. The soil, like that of England, is varied, and the most of it easy of cultivation. The valleys of the Annapolis, Cumberland, and Colchester districts are highly cultivated, and compare favourably with the best lands of Ontario or Quebec. Digby, Hants and King's, Pictou and Antigonish counties are all fruit producers—but not to the same extent as Annapolis county—are famed for their root and grain crops, and all produce hay of the finest quality. The soil is good, as the land in its natural state is covered with timber and shrubs in great variety. There is abundance of good pasture in every county, and a vast quantity of stock horses, sheep, and cattle are raised with very little expense. In parts of the Province sheep are pastured out most of the winter, and in many places the entire year, without shelter. For all the fruits of the temperate zone the soil and climate of Nova Scotia are favourable. Apples, peaches, plums, cherries, and the smaller fruits and berries, tomatoes, grapes, and vegetables of the gourd kind all grow, and give large yields with but little attention. The apples of Nova Scotia are rapidly becoming famous; the soil appears particularly fitted for the production of this fruit. In 1896, 500,000 barrels were raised, and the profits of the business are attracting the attention of dealers in Europe. An orchard of from one to twenty acres is now attached

to almost every farm, and the ease with which they are cultivated makes the area the most profitable of the farm's production. The fisheries of Nova Scotia are among the finest and most profitable in the world. They are practically inexhaustible. The preservation of these valuable possessions, so coveted by our American neighbours, their own long since completely exhausted, led of late years to treaties being made whereby the limit of fishing outside a three-mile distance from the coast is strictly adhered to. The total value of the last year's fishing was nearly £2,000,000 sterling, and the number of men employed, partly farmers and partly fishermen, about 10,000. The West Indies and South America are the principal markets for export, and the fish and lumber sent to these distant points form a large portion of the earnings of the Province. Another valuable item is the production of lumber. As the lands become cultivated the value of the forests diminishes; but the Province still contains large tracks of woodland, which produce timber for ship-building and for manufacturing into lumber. Millions of feet of pine, spruce, and hemlock deals, scantling, and staves are annually shipped to the United States and Europe. Oak, elm, beech, birch, ash, spruce, all grow to great size, and in many parts of Nova Scotia in apparently undiminished quantity.

The mineral resources of Nova Scotia are valuable, and it is one of the few countries which have workable deposits of coal, iron, and gold side by side. Nearly all the commercial ores are found in parts of the Province, but coal and iron, the most valuable minerals any country can be blessed with, are in vast quantities, and, what is very important, are in close contiguity to each other. There are five large independent coal-fields in Nova Scotia, one at Pictou, spreading over an area of 120 square miles; one at Cumberland,

another at Londonderry; one at Sydney, and another in Inverness county. Those vast fields are only partially worked. The Sydney coal-field, the most eastern, extends over an area of 200 square miles. The total area of coal in Nova Scotia is 4000 square miles, with a total available working of 40 billion tons. This gives a faint idea of the vast coal resources of the Province. The output in 1897 was only 3,000,000 tons. The iron deposits, although extensive, are only worked at Londonderry, Torbrook, and Springville. Gypsum is found in nearly every county; deposits are large, but only partially worked; 120,000 tons were shipped in 1897. The gold-fields are valuable, and are scattered over the Province; with but mere scratching, during the past twenty-five years, they have produced £2,000,000 sterling.

In the foregoing references to appearance, climate, soil, and productions of the Province, I have with the exception of coal deposits designedly omitted Cape Breton, which forms the eastern extremity of Nova Scotia. This grand island deserves a separate chapter. It was, sometime after the collapse of French power in 1758, erected into a separate province, and so continued from 1780 to 1820, when it was incorporated with Nova Scotia. This island is 100 miles in length and 80 in breadth. Its hills are higher, its scenery grander than the Nova Scotian mainland. It possesses one of the most beautiful inland seas in the world, the far-famed Bras d'Or Lake. In the extreme north of the island the Cape North range of mountains tower aloft from the seaboard in sublime majesty. The Sugar-Loaf, the highest peak of the range, is the *Prima Vista* of Cabot, the spot upon which his eye first rested when he discovered the continent of America four centuries ago. This peak is the sentinel of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. From its top on a fine day one of the grandest scenes of beauty imaginable is



unfolded that ever kindled the enthusiasm of man. Across the Gulf, fifty miles away, can be seen Cape Ray and the red cliffs of Newfoundland. In mid-distance St. Paul's Island, the graveyard of the North Atlantic, its grim battlemented cliffs, frowning and dark, well in keeping with its terrible record of wreck and horror. To the left the Magdalen Islands can be faintly traced on the horizon, thence the coast from the Cape Rouge hills to Cheticamp. Turning around, the great extent of Cape Breton is unveiled from Sydney Harbour to Louisburg, while the mighty form of Cape Smokey stands boldly out, the "white vails of the cliffs" in shadowy splendour in the background. Beneath is Aspey Bay, with its three harbours and peerless beaches; and White Point, with its famed bay, looks bright as steel. Away in the front, Cape Dauphin, and St. Ann's; all forming a scene of wild and majestic beauty not to be matched on the broad continent of America. The wonderful combination of sea and sky, island and lake, ocean and mountain, forest and clearings, is to the beholder a revelation of enchanting beauty. The occupation of the island by the French has already been referred to; few traces of them remain, except in the harbours, bays, and coves on the north and east coast, which still show where once a busy population carried on their work. Several flourishing towns, with a bright, energetic look about them, are scattered over the island. Among them Louisburg, now a great shipping port, is again coming to the front; great wharves and piers, electric lights, and a fleet of vessels loading coal, a splendid line of railway connecting it with the continent, an incorporated city with all the improvements of the age, now takes the place of the silent ghosts of ruin and decay that so long marked the site of France's once proud military stronghold. Other towns such as Sydney, St. Peter's, Arichat, South Sydney,

Mabou, and Port Hood, Chiteamp, Eastern Harbour, and Hastings, all proclaim the fact that a new era has set in for Cape Breton. Another people, thrifty and progressive, are the leading race in the island, descendants of the hardy Scotchmen who founded their homes in the island about a century ago. Shoals of tourists visit the island every summer, to enjoy the beauty of the country, its great diversity of scene, and its balmy air. The island contains large coal-fields, gypsum, silver, and iron, and its area of 2000 square miles contains the finest arable land in the Dominion. Joined with all these advantages are good roads, railways, telegraphs, and all the modern advantages of civilisation. The island only requires to be better known to be appreciated; its great want at present is good immigrants. Farms partially cleared can be had at very reasonable rates, the necessities of life are easily had, prosperity awaits the immigrant who will go to work with a will, and success is certain.

The population of Nova Scotia, including Cape Breton, is about 500,000, consisting of English, Scotch, Irish, French, and German, a few thousand negroes, a few Jews, and about 1200 Indians of the Micmac tribe. The remnants of a once powerful and aggressive people, they live on lands reserved by Government for them, are partly supported by the people, and are rapidly disappearing. This mixed population in Nova Scotia live happily together, every year making rapid advance upward in the social scale. It may not be generally known that Nova Scotians have, all over the Dominion and the United States, a name identifying them among and from all other Canadians. They are called "Blue Noses." The name came originally from the Loyalists who left the revolting colonies in 1776. As Loyalists they were termed "True Blues"; after a while the rebels called them "Blue Noses." Originally

a name of contempt, it became a most honourable designation, and to-day, to say to a native of Nova Scotia "You are a Blue Nose," is something flattering and inspiring indeed. The inhabitants of the various Provinces of the Dominion differ greatly in manner, according to their situation, some being agricultural, others commercial, and others partaking of the nature of both. But the Nova Scotian is away ahead of the above; he is generally a man of versatile manner and varied attainments. He will be found cultivating a farm, building a vessel at the same time, able to catch a cargo of fish and cure it, navigate his vessel and cargo to the West Indies and dispose of it, take a return cargo of sugar or molasses to some distant port and sell it on his return home; tiring of the sea, he will change his occupation, teach a school, keep shop, take an active part in politics, try, and generally succeeds, in getting into the local legislature, is great on public speaking—the number of public orators in the country districts is large. He has been known for generations for being all things by turns but nothing long, and in some marvellous way acquires or turns to a great diversity of trades and occupations, all of which he knows a great deal about. His versatile and original turn of expression make him remarkable among the other colonists in the Dominion.

Nova Scotia, now part and parcel of the Dominion of Canada, sends 20 members to the Federal Parliament, and is represented by 10 members in the Senate. Has also a Local Parliament of 38 members, a Legislative Council of 21 members, an Executive Council of 10 members; and has, in addition to all these representatives, a perfect scheme of municipal government in operation in the 18 counties. The machinery of Government would almost seem too heavy for a small province, but it seems to satisfy the inhabitants. The governor is appointed by the Government of the day;

when his term of office expires at the end of five years, he steps down and returns to business again. The governors are taken from the province to which they belong, and as a rule give great satisfaction. The Federal Parliament deals with the larger matters of the Dominion—the Duties, “Grants to Railways,” the Judiciary, &c.—while the Local House has under its jurisdiction the care of the Schools, the Public Roads and Bridges, the Local Railways, Royalties, and Minerals owned by the Province. Each province has a local subsidy for expenses and government. The judges, custom-house and post-office officials, are paid by the Federal Government. The system gives every satisfaction. Members of the Federal and Local Houses are elected for a term of five years, or until the House is dissolved, which an adverse vote in either House may occasion at any time. The system of trial by jury prevails. In the chief towns and cities are stipendiary magistrates, who sit daily for the hearing of ordinary police cases. The counties and townships have local councils, which regulate the taxation for roads, schools, and other purposes, so that every man directly votes for the taxes he is called upon to pay. These necessary expenses are aided by grants from the local government to the various districts. The system of government is most satisfactory, and all have fair-play in Nova Scotia. Education has been well attended to. King’s College, Windsor, was founded over a century ago, and has sent out a vast body of educated men, who, in their various generations, have rendered great service to the Province. Dalhousie University at Halifax, founded in 1820, is now the leading educational centre for the maritime provinces. Public teachers are trained at a splendidly equipped Normal School at public expense. Free education is furnished all over the Province. This accounts for the hosts of writers and literary talent in Nova Scotia. Among



them some have achieved world-wide fame—Haliburton, Howe, Grant, and Young, lead in the van; then follow a throng of poets, writers, and journalists, such as Griffin, Bourinot, Stewart, and Longley, who have all done credit to the Province. Nova Scotians have everywhere excelled as public speakers and debaters, and to-day the Nova Scotian representatives in the Federal House are considered the best debaters in the Dominion.

Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia, and the seat of local government, is a well-built town situated on the noble harbour already described. It contains 50,000 inhabitants, and has all the latest and best improvements that wealth and science furnish to-day. It has capital public schools, is the seat of a university, is governed by a mayor and eighteen aldermen, is lighted by electricity, has electric tram-roads, dry docks, telephones, and telegraph and cable communication with the world. It is one of the oldest cities in the Dominion. Wealth is well distributed; no millionaires, but a great middling educated class, thrifty and comfortable. The societies are numerous, one of which, the North British Society, the oldest charitable national institution in Canada, is wealthy and useful. In Halifax every man has a chance, religion is respected, and freedom is enjoyed by all. Few places on the globe have the privileges and advantages that Halifax possesses. The Province east and west contains a great number of small cities and shire towns, and each of the eighteen counties has its central head-quarters. Most of these towns are incorporated and furnished with all the latest improvements of modern life. Splendid roads permeate the Province in all directions, and the people generally enjoy a degree of comfort not found in older countries. Taxes are light, with good markets for all surplus produce raised by the settlers. The early troubles of a new colony have passed away.

Nova Scotia is an old colony with all the advantages of experience. The wonderful mineral wealth of the Province, its noble harbours, its fertile soil, its extensive fisheries, its proximity to Europe, its water power, its temperate climate, and its possession of the winter port of the vast Canadian Pacific system to the Pacific, all indicate Nova Scotia as destined to achieve her ambition for extended commerce, and to be the seat of great manufactures, for wielding a great power not only in the Dominion but over the entire American continent. With an honest pride in the resources of Nova Scotia, I can say, no emigrant from Britain should pass this noble Province by when seeking a home on the other side of the Atlantic, for in Nova Scotia all will be found that goes toward making life pleasant. Good laws, a good climate, the same flag he has always lived under, all depending upon his own rational exertions and industry, without which, soil, climate, and social conditions cannot count in the battle before him. Nova Scotia should have 1,000,000 settlers from the overcrowded fatherland Britain. Good homes await all who go to this Province—health, comfort, and happiness, in this most favoured spot of England's possession on the broad continent of America.

## PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

By PROFESSOR J. P. SHELDON, J.P.

LYING in the form of a crescent in the lap of the great Gulf of St. Lawrence, and separated by the Strait of Northumberland from the shores of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island occupies to all appearance a snug position on the map of Eastern Canada. Lying, too, between  $45^{\circ} 58'$  and  $47^{\circ} 7'$  north latitude, and  $62^{\circ}$  and  $64^{\circ} 27'$  west longitude, its geographical location is favourable for the well-being of man and beast, of trees and flowers and cultivated crops, all of which are found to flourish on that little gem in Canada's inland ocean. The form of the crescent, however, is altogether wanting in evenness of outline, for the coast has numerous bays and estuaries, some of them forming trusty landlocked harbours, the one particularly noticeable being that in which Charlottetown, the capital of the Island, is situated. This harbour, indeed, is spacious, placid, and picturesque to a degree not easily excelled elsewhere on the eastern side of North America, but it suffers from the disadvantage of being ice-bound in the winter, in common with the mighty river St. Lawrence itself, and communication with the mainland for the time being is accomplished on foot or in sleighs, the shortest distance across the Strait being less than ten miles. The inconvenience of transit, unchangeable as it is save by the construction of a tunnel under the Strait or by the employment of powerful ice-breaking steam-boats, is not very serious except when the ice is forming in November and break-

ing up again in March, and the people get along for the most part fairly well, on the ice, in respect to intercommunication with their fellow-countrymen in the adjacent maritime Provinces of Canada. The time occupied in the closing of the Strait by frost in the fall of the year and in its reopening in the spring is anticipated by means which readily span the process in either case, and indeed winter in Prince Edward Island, as in Eastern Canada generally, is looked forward to as affording opportunities for rest and enjoyment seasoned with the ordinary cares of the period.

### ITS DISCOVERY

To whom the earliest discovery of Prince Edward Island must be ascribed, is not by any means satisfactorily known; and this uncertainty promises to remain for the future, as for the present, a problem unsolved. One would naturally be inclined to believe that a record exists amongst the archives of France or of England—or perhaps of both, but almost certainly of one, and that one probably England, though possibly France—that would clear up once for all a doubt whose removal would be welcomed alike in Canada and in England. So far, however, no such record has been disinterred from the documentary limbo of either country, or if disinterred has not been restored to life. The tradition that Sebastian Cabot, sailing under a royal commission issued by Henry VII. of England, sighted the Island on June 24, 1497, is not sufficiently well authenticated at present to be accepted as history. The dates are precise enough, no doubt, if only precision of dates were proof of achievements. Circumstantial evidence is not in their favour, however, in this case, inasmuch as England neglected to claim the Island at the time, by taking possession of it, or by any other method; and we may venture to assume, indeed, that



our ancestors of four hundred years ago, or of any subsequent period, would hardly be likely to let slip so good an opportunity of acquiring a fair possession on such easy terms. Jacques Cartier is said to have discovered it—mark the month and the day—on June 24, 1534, and he is admitted to have named it the Isle of St. Jean, the day being that of St. John. This midsummer-day discovery, occurring in both cases, is, to say the least, a remarkable coincidence, and it throws a doubt—unequally, of course, but still a doubt—on the strict authenticity of both; but the probability is clearly in favour of Cartier, inasmuch as he gave a name to the Island. It has also been said that the French took possession and claimed sovereignty over it in virtue of its discovery by an Italian named Verazzini, who was sent out by Francis I. of France in 1523 or 1524. Yet again there is no authentic evidence at hand that Verazzini ever saw the Island. In any case, however, the name, Isle St. Jean, was that by which the Island was known for more than two and a half centuries, during which time various stirring incidents occurred. Up to the seventeenth century, early in which Champlain took possession of it on behalf of France, the Island does not seem to have been thought worth special annexation by either France or England, and statements made about it differ very considerably so far as the sixteenth century is concerned. Eventually, however, France took it in hand. In the year 1663 a grant of the Island was made to Captain Doublet, who, failing to establish the stipulated settlements in the Colony, forfeited his interest in it. In 1719 it was granted to the Count of St. Pierre, who, at considerable expense, strove to establish fisheries and a trading company; his efforts, too, were unsuccessful, and his grant was annulled. The Island was captured by the British in 1745, but was restored to France by the treaty of

Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and was again taken by the British in 1758, since which time it has continued to form a part of the British Empire. For several years the Island was under the administration of Nova Scotia, but in 1770 the dignity of a separate government was accorded. Three years later the first Parliament was convened, and in 1798 the name of the Island was changed to that of Prince Edward Island, in compliment to the Duke of Kent, the father of our greatly revered Queen Victoria, who was then commander-in-chief of the forces in British North America. The Act of the local legislature changing the name of the Island was confirmed in the following year by the king in Council, and the new name has just now entered into its second century.

#### ITS SETTLEMENT

After the peace of 1763 the British Government decided on having a survey made, and a plan was agreed upon under which the Island was laid out in townships of some 20,000 acres each. These lands were granted extensively to certain individuals who were understood to have claims on the Government for military or other public services, but granted with reservations as to quitrents and such portions of territory as might afterwards be found necessary for fortifications or public purposes, for churches and glebe lands, for schools and endowments thereof; while 500 feet from high-water mark were reserved for free fishery purposes; and all deposits of gold, silver, and coal, if any, were reserved to the Crown. It was also stipulated that the grantee of each township should settle the same within ten years from date, in the proportion of one person for each 200 acres, such settlers to be either European Protestants or persons who had already lived two years in British North America.

In this fashion the whole of the Island was, in 1767, as is said by one writer on the subject, "disposed of in one day," with the exception of one lot reserved for the king, and two lots which had been promised to two firms who had established fisheries and made improvements, and three further reservations intended for county towns. The grantees, however, were in many cases mere mercenaries, who had no inclination to pass their days in colonising a new country, in clearing land of the incubus of rocks and primeval forest, and in bringing a virgin soil under cultivation. Many of them consequently disposed of their lots without loss of time, and much of the land fell into the hands of non-resident owners, who made the best they could of the bargain, and performed as few as possible of the stipulated conditions. Here then we have, for the New World, the anomaly of a great system of absentee landlordism, which, irksome and unsatisfactory in old countries, could hardly become a success on Prince Edward Island. The result was what, in the light of recent experience, we might correctly expect, viz. dissatisfaction on the part of the tenants, and agitation for reform and readjustment. A Commission that was appointed to make inquiry recommended the Provincial Government to buy the lands and then sell them to the tenantry. The Imperial authorities disallowed the first Bill that was passed, but a second one met with a better reception; the occupiers eagerly availed themselves of the opportunity thus presented of buying the lands they held, and the agitation came to an end in that direction.

These sales of land excited considerable indignation on the part of some of those whose property was thus disposed of, and it appears that not entirely unreasonable ground existed for the expression of feeling which took place. Not only were occupied lands sold to the tenants, but unoccupied lands were disposed of on

account of arrears of quitrents, and at prices in many cases but little more than the amount of such arrears, and—worse still—the owners received no warning that their lands would be sold, though the Act directed such warning to be given. For all that, however, it appears that at all events public notices were sent out, and the sales were postponed time after time, in order to give absentee proprietors an opportunity of preventing the escheat of their lands through failure of duties stipulated for when the grants were made to the original grantees. These proprietors, in point of fact, had bought lands in a period of war and of depressed land values from the grantees, and now that peace and prosperity had returned to the Island, and real property had risen in value, they clamoured for the appreciation that had occurred during the interval, though no such rise in value had occurred when notices were sent out that the lands would be sold on account of arrears, or for any other reason. For a time there was a good deal of troubled water to be dealt with diplomatically, but finally matters were allowed to settle down as best they could, and no disallowance of sales took place. The great body of the absentee proprietors, in fact, had failed to maintain their engagements, and had technically forfeited their lands; feeling that their position was insecure, owing to their own delinquencies, they gradually settled down to acquiesce in accomplished facts. Among the emigrants from “the old country,” as the British Islands are affectionately termed in Canada, a large number of Highlanders were brought out from Scotland by the Earl of Selkirk, many of whom became, as they were expected to be, successful colonists on the Island. Absentee landlordism is now a thing of the past on Prince Edward Island, at all events as a system.



## GEOLOGICAL FEATURES

The primary geological formations in Prince Edward Island are represented by sandstones, brown, red, and grey, and by shale with strata of coarse concretionary limestone, enclosing fossil plants. An eminent geologist, Sir William Dawson, has named the latter the Permo-carboniferous series, inasmuch as they appertain to the Newer Carboniferous, or, in part, to the Lower Permian period. They appear in various parts; for instance, in Pownal, Hillsborough, and Orwell Bays, and on the coast between the West and North Capes. But the prevailing rocks are bright red sandstones, with calcareous cement, alternating with beds of red and mottled clay, and occasionally with layers of limestones and conglomerate, which find a counterpart in the Trias or New Red Sandstone of adjacent Nova Scotia. The geologic formation may be divided into an upper and a lower section, the latter representing, says Dawson, "the Bunter Sandstein of Europe" in its hard, concretionary, calcareous sandstones, and obscure fossil plants; while the former, perhaps representing the Keuper marl of Europe, "has softer and more regularly bedded sandstones and clays." No deposits of coal, gypsum, or auriferous metal have been met with, but there are beds of peat, sand dunes, alluvial clays, and — most remarkable of all — deposits of "mussel-mud" occur in creeks and bays. The agricultural soil of the Island has been derived from disintegrated red sandstone, and partakes of its peculiar colour. As in other countries whose soils have come from sand rocks, Prince Edward Island is well adapted for arable cultivation. The mussel-mud, which is found in beds along the coast, and which, consisting of the remains of countless generations of marine bivalves, chiefly mussels, but also oysters and clams, is procured through openings made in the ice in winter time, forms

an excellent fertiliser, supplying the phosphates in which sandstone soils are commonly deficient. This mussel-mud constitutes the harvest that is gathered in winter, and it stimulates the growth of the harvests of summer. Holes through the thick ice are made in many places, and various "mussel-mud" diggers, consisting of a framework of timber, with bucket and rope and horse-power pulleys, may be seen dotting the surface of the frozen sea in the depth of winter. This valuable fertiliser is obtained at a cost which is represented by the labour expended in recovering it from the bed of the creek or bay, and the supply of it is abundant, almost inexhaustible.

#### AGRICULTURE

For the early settlers, the pioneers who did the roughest of the work in the primeval forests, clearing off the timber and brushwood that covered the best of the land, the burden and the heat of the day were no light load to bear. Trees were felled by thousands and disposed of where possible, the stumps being left in position to rot until such time—seven or eight years later—they could be got rid of with the least expenditure of toil. Now, indeed, the Island has for the most part been brought under cultivation, fenced, roaded, equipped with farmsteads here, there, and everywhere. It is generally pretty, sylvan, picturesque, in many places reminding the visitor of bits of Old England. Such was the impression left on the writer's mind after a very pleasant time spent on the Island. The resemblance is no doubt in part adventitious, owing to the early colonists from Old England and to the loyalists from New England, whose tastes led them to imitate old-country fences where they could, and clumps of trees as well as hedgerow timber. Be this as it may, the appearance which the Island pre-

sents, in its cultivated parts, might readily cause an Englishman to fancy he was in some unfamiliar district of his own country.

### SOIL AND FERTILISERS

The soil of the Island is, for the most part, of a friable character, easy to cultivate, responsive to the application of "mussel-mud," a manure essentially artificial as to source, but purely natural in its composition, and simple of preparation. This fertiliser consists of the remains of various shell-fish, and is valuable chiefly for its phosphatic elements. The shells, indeed, when recovered from the bed of the sea, are to a great extent still intact, though tender from long ages of deposition, and they gradually mellow down and become amalgamated with the soil, richly replenishing it with the most valuable of slowly soluble fertilising ingredients, viz. phosphate of lime, which indeed, in this case, has been prepared for its new purpose by passing through the process which adapted it to its previous one, viz., decomposition. The farmers are alive to the value of the fertiliser which lies submerged so plentifully along their shores, and they use large quantities of it on land which, having been cropped for generations, begins to exhibit signs of fatigue if not of exhaustion. It may be applied with great advantage to any crop whatever, and to grass land as well as to that which is under the plough, but obviously it is more effectual in the latter case, its incorporation and amalgamation being so much sooner accomplished. This extremely useful natural deposit, artificial only in its application, will, it is confidently presumed, serve its present purpose for many long years to come, so that purely artificial manures, so-called, will for the most part be an expense which only future generations will have to meet. Be that as it may, the agricultural soil of Prince Edward Island is of a sort

which responds quickly to generous treatment, and there can be no doubt that the commercial superphosphates, basic slag, crushed bones, and so on, which are so largely employed in the British Islands, would answer equally well on Prince Edward Island. Marsh-mud, sea-weed, and fish-refuse are also used as manures.

### CROPS AND LIVE STOCK

The two farm-crops which grow nearest to perfection on Prince Edward Island are oats and potatoes, followed more or less closely in point of quality by wheat, turnips, and barley. Wheat and oats will respectively yield 18 to 30, and 25 to 70 bushels per acre, whilst potatoes will not uncommonly yield 250, and swede turnips 750 bushels per acre, and sometimes up to 300 and 1000 bushels, respectively. The yield of crops depends on the cleanness of the land and on the application of fertilisers. The farmers of the Island understand their business, and it is long since they left behind its elementary stages. But there are differences among them, as among farmers in any other country, in respect to the application of brains, of hands, and of manures. The Provincial Government has, in connection with its well-appointed experimental farm, done much to promote a better understanding not only of the cultivation and fertilising of the soil, but also of the breeding of improved cattle, sheep, and pigs. In respect to the breeding of horses, of the sort chiefly required on the North American Continent, the Prince Edward Island farmers have long borne a high reputation. The Island, indeed, has long been known under a pet name of "the Garden of Canada." The soil of the Island is especially adapted to sheep, for it is light, dry, and sound, with sweet, nutritious herbage on well-farmed land, clover growing luxuriantly after a liberal application of mussel-mud. The quality and character



of the cattle and sheep are being raised by importations of superior blood, and it is obvious that the land will carry good stock profitably, whilst bad stock are profitable nowhere in comparison. Co-operative dairying has made considerable progress of late years, and this in itself will be a powerful stimulus toward the breeding of improved dairy stock.

#### ADMINISTRATION, COURTS, AND SCHOOLS

The public affairs of the Province of Prince Edward Island are administered by a Lieutenant-Governor and an Executive Council of nine members, three with portfolios and six without, assisted by a Legislative Council of thirteen members, and a Legislative Assembly of thirty members, both elective. The Lieutenant-Governor is appointed by the Governor-General of Canada in council. The Island returns six members to the Dominion House of Commons, and four senators are appointed to the Dominion Senate by the Crown. The franchise for the House of Assembly is practically that of residential manhood suffrage. The Provincial Legislature sits at Charlottetown, in which, as the capital town of the Island, all the public offices are located. The Province is empowered to frame its own civil laws, in common with other Provinces of the Dominion, but in all criminal cases the form employed in the courts is the criminal law of the Dominion at large. The free school system, for which Canada has long been favourably known, has been established nearly half a century on the Island, and a comprehensive educational establishment, conducted at the cost of the community, is managed by a Department of Education formed under an ample and liberal Public Schools Act which was passed in 1877. The capital town is proud of its two colleges, Prince of Wales's and St. Dunstan's; of its three large public schools, its two convent schools

for girls, its Church of England (St. Peter's) private schools for boys and girls. All the country districts are also well supplied with schools, and education of the young is very properly considered one of the first and most imperative duties of the State in all newly-settled as well as in older inhabited districts. The post-office and the school advance together into the prairies and backwoods of Canada.

### FISHERIES

Prince Edward Island is regarded, from a fisherman's point of view, as possessing around its coasts the best waters to be found in the whole of the great region of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. For all that, however, and owing perhaps to the profusion of piscatorial wealth at everybody's door, these waters have not been utilised to anything near their possibilities. The tastes of the islanders have been all along chiefly in the direction of agriculture, the soil being eminently suitable for crops and live stock, for arable cultivation, and for grass-land husbandry, for grain and roots, for horses, cattle, sheep, and swine, and for the production of cheese and butter. The denizens of the vasty deep which are most abundant are mackerel, herring, lobster, oysters, cod, hake, while salmon and trout are to be found in the rivers. These fishing grounds, and especially, perhaps, those appertaining to oysters, are said to be susceptible of great development. A glance at the map will disclose the fact that, relatively to the area of the Island, its coast-line is very extensive, the inlets, bays, and estuaries being unusually numerous. There is no room to doubt that, in her waters round the coast, Prince Edward Island possesses great potential wealth, which in course of time will command the attention it so richly merits.

## POPULATION

The smallest of the Provinces of Canada, Prince Edward Island, is more thickly populated than any of the others; but there is still room upon it for a much larger number of people, to whom it confidently offers prosperity and happiness as tillers of a willing soil and breeders of superior live stock of the farm. Some explanation of its greater wealth of population may be found in the pleasing appellations it has won, viz., "The Garden of Canada," and, in respect to its excellent horses, "The Arabia of America." The population numbered 109,078 in the census of 1891, and this gives 54.5 persons, of all ages, per sq. m. of land. There were then 54,881 males and 54,197 females, and it does not therefore appear that female emigrants from Europe are as sorely needed as, for instance, they are in the Great North-West. There are now 100,000 more people on the Island than there were a century ago, and as it is a very pleasant land to live in, the coming century may be expected to add, in all probability, another 100,000 to the population. There are now fewer than 300 Indians, all of the Micmac tribe, and the number is slowly but inevitably diminishing on the Island, as indeed it is elsewhere in North America.

## MANITOBA

By SIDNEY G. B. CORYN

THE Dominion of Canada contains seven provinces, of which Manitoba is the central, and, from an agricultural point of view, the most important. The Province of Manitoba has an area of 116,021 square miles, or about 74,000,000 acres, about equal to the combined areas of England, Scotland and Ireland.

To an agricultural country the quality of the soil is of the first importance. Professor Tanner, well known in the front ranks of English authorities, says of it: "I am bound to state that, although we have hitherto considered the black earth of Central Russia the richest soil in the world, that land has now to yield its distinguished position to the rich, deep, black soils of Manitoba and the North-West Territories. Here it is that the champion soils of the world are to be found."

But yet Manitoba is not entirely agricultural, nor does it consist exclusively of prairie land. Its forests are ample enough for fuel and for ornament; its rivers swarm with fish, and its lakes—Winnipeg, Manitoba, and Winnipegosis—tempt the tourist and the fisherman from less favoured regions.

The completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway was, to Manitoba, the one thing necessary to its advance. Within the confines of the province there are to-day over 1500 miles of railway lines, and 1000 schools are under the control of the Government.

Winnipeg, on the Red River, is the capital of Manitoba and the chief city of the whole North-West,



of Canada. Lying half-way between Montreal and Vancouver, the Atlantic and the Pacific, it is rapidly becoming the commercial as well as the geographical centre of the Dominion. In 1876 its population was 3240; to-day it is considerably over 40,000. The land survey system of Manitoba is virtually the same as that prevailing throughout the whole of the North-West Territories. Free-grant land is still available, and of a quality in no way inferior to that which is offered for sale. This is guaranteed by the system of land survey, by which the Territory is divided into townships, these again into sections, and into quarter sections of 160 acres each. These divisions are numbered from 1 to 36, and, broadly speaking, the odd numbers are reserved for free grants, while the even numbers are the property of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, the Hudson Bay Company, or are reserved for school and road purposes, as the ultimate needs of the district may demand.

The conditions attaching to the free-grant lands are few and simple, and are mainly intended as a guarantee for the legitimate agricultural use of the land, and to prevent mere land speculation. For the first three years of occupation, the settler is required to live upon the land for at least six months of each year, and during that same period to cultivate at least 15 acres each year, amounting to 45 acres during the three years. These simple stipulations being complied with, he receives the patent for his homestead, and it becomes his absolute freehold property. This method of acquiring land is usually adopted by settlers possessing small capital. For those with larger funds at their disposal, prairie land may be purchased in any quantity at prices ranging from 10s. per acre upward, or improved homesteads may be bought. In any case, the land needs no clearing, as the virgin soil is ripe for the plough.

Emigration to the North-West Territories of Canada has for many years proceeded apace, and not alone from Great Britain, but from all the countries of Europe. Thus we find Icelandic, Scandinavian, Russian, and German settlements in various parts of the Territories. Without exception these colonies are prosperous and their people contented and industrious, while their sobriety and intelligence are a guarantee of their future success. The seasons in Manitoba are well marked. The summer is bright, clear, and warm, and the winter cold; but throughout the winter the sun shines nearly every day, and there is seldom any wind. The extreme dryness of the air altogether robs the cold of its discomfort. The snow is never deep, and the ordinary work of farm and homestead goes forward without interruption.

Although the extent of forest lands in Manitoba has prevented the fuel problem from becoming acute, the successful search for coal has proved eminently satisfactory. It is estimated that between Winnipeg and the Rocky Mountains there are some 65,000 square miles of coal-bearing strata, and the Government has arranged that this coal shall be available at prices ranging from 10s. to 20s. per ton according to locality.

Since the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway, emigration to the Province has proceeded apace. While farmers, farm-labourers, and female domestic servants are classes most in demand, very large numbers of men and women, without any special knowledge, but with good health, energy, and determination, have become successful settlers, and have steadily improved their position from the start.

The dairy industry in Manitoba is making very rapid strides. Creameries and cheese-factories are established throughout the country, whose output is steadily increasing. In 1896 the output of cheese

alone amounted to 986,000 pounds. Manitoba and the provinces westward are rapidly becoming the great wheat-growing countries of the world. In 1896 the area under wheat was 1,081,960 acres, and the aggregate yield 14,433,706 bushels. A careful estimate made by the superintendent of the Government experimental farm at Brandon of the cost of growing an acre of wheat is £1, 12s. 4d. This was the result of an actual experiment on a yield of 29 bushels. The quality of the Manitoba wheat is already known throughout the world, "No. 1 Hard" ranking higher than any other variety.

The Province still affords a vast field for the activity of experimental farmers who can command sufficient capital for the primary operations, for the supply of implements, and to maintain himself and his family during the first year. For such, Manitoba has abundant room and the assurance of success and independence. The early settlers were all of this class, and they had to confront difficulties which have now been removed by the completion of the railway. The cost of transportation is now less than one-half of what it was twenty years ago. Timber for building can be procured with the greatest ease and economy, while the necessaries of life can be purchased on the spot and at the most favourable prices. To-day, the settler with £100 ready money is more advantageously placed than he would have been with double that amount twelve or fifteen years ago, and in all parts of Manitoba farm produce can be readily disposed of within a few miles of any settler at the nearest railway station.

Along the line of railway and of its branches new settlements are growing up almost day by day as the stream of emigration penetrates north and south and railway enterprise follows in its track.

The Province of Manitoba contains all the elements

which can secure for it a prominent position, not alone in the Dominion of Canada, but in the world at large. With the industry of its inhabitants and its own natural resources it is not difficult to predict for it an increasingly prosperous future.

The characteristics which command success in Manitoba are largely the same as in other countries. A ready willingness to adopt the new methods of a new country and a tireless industry are the main factors; and while the possession of capital is no small advantage, there are to-day thousands of prosperous farmers who started with absolutely nothing, or even in debt. The classes who emigrate from the old countries are obviously the energetic, the enterprising, and the adventurous, and it will be long before such as these fail to find a home and a welcome in Manitoba.



# BRITISH COLUMBIA

By W. S. SEBRIGHT GREEN, F.R.C.I., F.R.S.L.

*(Late of British Columbia)*

IN attempting to give some description of this important Province of the Dominion I purpose, in the first place, to sketch rapidly the history of the discovery of what is now known as Vancouver Island, and other parts of the Province situate on the mainland, showing how it came into the possession of the British nation.

I then propose to treat of these lands and their status and condition when subject to the régime of the old fur-trading companies; secondly, when subject to the Hudson Bay Company under their monopoly of trade on the mainland granted in 1821, and under their charter by which the Island of Vancouver was absolutely granted to the Hudson Bay Company for the purposes of colonisation; and passing on to show their gradual rise and progress from the time of the first gold discoveries, and the consequent advancement of Vancouver Island and British Columbia from Hudson Bay settlements to Crown colonies, their growth and increased importance under the altered circumstances, until at length, after being to a limited extent self-governing colonies, they were first united as one colony under the title of British Columbia, and subsequently of their own free-will entered the great Dominion of Canada.

It will also be my duty to point out what are the principal inducements to those belonging to the

mother country, who desire to seek a new field in which to earn a living, to turn their attention to British Columbia, which is by no means the cold and inhospitable country that it is sometimes depicted to be.

The riches of British Columbia, and its vast resources for the employment of labour and capital, will also be treated of as we progress.

There is no doubt that the Spaniards were the first to discover land in the Northern Pacific in the early part of the sixteenth century, and subsequently Spain, by virtue of a Papal bull, claimed possession of all land in the Pacific north of California. This pretended title of Spain was never recognised by the English Government. In 1577 Sir Francis Drake obtained the sanction of Queen Elizabeth to an expedition to the Pacific Ocean.

Starting from Plymouth in 1577 with five small vessels, he brought his small fleet safely through the Strait of Magellan, when a storm attacked them, and four of his ships were wrecked. But even with one small schooner and sixty men he seems to have realised a considerable amount of booty from the capture of Spanish ships, and apprehensive of the Spaniards attacking him if he attempted to return through the Strait of Magellan, he made diligent search for a north-west passage from the Pacific to the Atlantic, but failed to discover that which never existed, although he undoubtedly planted the English flag in the neighbourhood of Nootka Sound.

In 1592 a Greek, Juan de Fuca by name, who had been one of the crew of a Spanish vessel which was captured by Captain Cavendish in 1587, was sent out with two small vessels by the Viceroy of Mexico. De Fuca followed the coast of North America until he came to the latitude of  $47^{\circ}$ , and there he found a broad inlet of the sea, through which he sailed for more than twenty days, passing many islands, and

finding a much broader sea than at the entrance, and according to the legend finally emerged into the North Sea, when, thinking that he had undoubtedly discovered the North-West passage, he returned home well satisfied. It is very doubtful, however, whether this voyage was in reality ever made; but there remains evidence of a navigator having the name having been in these parts, and giving the name to San Juan Island and to the Strait of San Juan de Fuca.

Subsequent explorations took place, principally by the Spaniards, notably one expedition commanded by one Bodega y Quadra, who undoubtedly took possession of a part of the island now called Vancouver, and to which he gave the name of Quadra.

In 1776 the great navigator Captain Cook was sent out by the English Government on an expedition to discover a practicable sea route between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. He carefully examined the coast, but found no indication of any such channel as had been represented by Juan de Fuca to be there, and pronounced the story told by that navigator to be a myth. Captain Cook passed by the Strait of San Juan de Fuca, but does not seem to have entered it. He gave the name of Cape Flattery to the promontory still known under that name, and anchored for a time near Nootka Sound. About ten years after Cook's visit we find that Captain Meares commanded an expedition fitted out by the Bengal Mercantile Association, giving his name to the strait which is still known as Meares Strait, and taking possession of the adjacent country in the name of George III. Next we come to Captain Vancouver, who was sent out by the English Government to meet a Spanish Commission at Nootka Sound, and to complete the survey of the coast commenced by Captain Cook, with the view of finding the much-talked-of North-West passage. Although he failed in making any such dis-

covery, he entered into joint occupation of Nootka with the Spaniards, who afterwards abandoned the possession. Vancouver, having given his name to the island, after completing his surveys returned to England in 1795.

But little was known of Vancouver Island or the mainland of British Columbia from the time of Vancouver's visit until about 1821, except that a very extensive fur-trade was carried on by vessels of various nations.

Three great corporations occupied an immense tract of country for trading purposes—the North-West Fur Company, the Hudson Bay Company, and the Quebec Fur Company. The first white man who traversed the Rockies and entered British Columbia was Sir Alexander Mackenzie, who in 1790 followed the Fraser River and Peace River to their sources. He gave his name to the Mackenzie River and called the country New Caledonia. In 1806 the first fur-trading post was established by a then factor of the Hudson Bay Company, who gave his name to the Fraser River.

In 1821 the fur-trading companies amalgamated under the title of the Hudson Bay Company, and a number of trading posts were established on the mainland, and the whole country was ruled by the Hudson Bay traders. It was not, however, until about 1843 that these enterprising traders established trading posts on Vancouver, the first being at Camosun, which was soon after renamed Victoria.

In 1847 the Hudson Bay Company, through their then chairman, Sir T. H. Pelly, expressed to Earl Grey, then Secretary for the Colonies, their willingness to undertake the government and colonisation of all the territories belonging to the Crown in North America. This was rather too large an order for Lord Grey's acceptance, but in 1848 a deed was executed which



constituted the Company absolute lords and proprietors of the soil of Vancouver Island, with the provision that the Company should at once establish upon the island settlements of British subjects. It soon became evident that the Company had no intention of colonising the country. A nominal sub-company was formed which consisted of Hudson Bay shareholders and nominees, who took up large tracts of land in the neighbourhood of Victoria, and brought out farm bailiffs and labourers from England to cultivate these lands, so that the very best land in the island became the absolute property of members of the Hudson Bay Company. No settlers were allowed to take up land in the island unless they came in under the auspices of the Company.

Simultaneously with this grant Mr. Blanchard was appointed by the Crown first Governor of the Colony, but without salary, arrangements being made with the Hudson Bay Company that governor Blanchard was to have a free passage out, that a government residence should be provided for him, with a free grant of 1000 acres of land. Not one of these pledges was redeemed by the Company, and after endeavouring to do his duty conscientiously, subject to every sort of annoyance by the Hudson Bay factors, Mr. Blanchard resigned his position, and Mr. Douglas (afterwards Sir James) was appointed in his stead, retaining at the same time his position as chief factor of the Hudson Bay Company.

This was a great mistake on the part of her Majesty's Government, for it placed the whole control again in the Hudson Bay Company, to the great detriment of those few colonists who had taken up land without any connection with the Hudson Bay Company. No doubt in many respects Mr. Douglas was an able man, but many of his acts in the early part of his governorship were unwise and very unpopular. Nepotism was a great weakness with him; his brother-

in-law, Mr. David Cameron, a layman with no knowledge of law except in one particular branch, with which his business misfortunes in another part of her Majesty's possessions had made him familiar, was appointed Chief-Justice. Mr. Cameron was a painstaking judge and very careful and prudent, but when a new governor came to Vancouver Island, and the population increased, it became desirable to have a judge with a thorough legal training. The first Chief-Justice narrowly escaped being suspended for some irregularities which would have been, indeed had been, passed over under Mr. Douglas's régime. However, through a timely warning conveyed to him through two members of the Executive Council this peril was averted, and Cameron subsequently retired on a pension. Several other near connections of Mr. Douglas received Government appointments, and last, but not least, he himself was enabled to acquire a quantity of land by purchase, which in a few years became very valuable.

In point of fact the two colonies were practically controlled by Mr. Douglas until 1858, when a new era set in. Gold had been discovered by some prospectors from California in 1857, which speedily brought a vast number of gold-seekers to Victoria. Soon after this the régime of the Hudson Bay Company ceased.

In 1859 Mr. Douglas was appointed Governor of British Columbia, over which he had formerly only exercised a sort of protectorate. The mainland was formed into a separate colony, its capital being New Westminster. When Mr. Douglas became governor of the two colonies, he resigned his position in the Hudson Bay Company.

Mr. J. D. Pemberton, the first Surveyor-General of Vancouver Island, had laid out the town site of Victoria some years before, but town sites had not sold. The Hudson Bay Company had acquired all the central and best sites, and held them for a rise in prices.

In the spring and early summer of 1858 steamers arrived from San Francisco crowded with speculators and gold-seekers two or three times a week, and between the beginning of February and the end of June it was estimated that close upon 20,000 people landed in Victoria, which, from being a little village with only two or three hundred inhabitants, became for the time being a city of tents and a scene of bustle and excitement; town sites went up to fabulous prices; town lots 60 feet by 120 feet, which had been bought from the Company at from £10 to £20, were frequently split into halves and sold at prices varying from £300 to £600. Of course a large proportion of the new arrivals went immediately to the mainland to prospect for gold on the Fraser River, but prospecting in these early days was carried on under great difficulties. Gold there was, but the great trouble was to get to it. The first great rush in 1858 was to the neighbourhood of Fort Hope, a Hudson Bay fort on the Fraser River; gold was found in considerable quantities in the bars, which, in fact, were accumulations of sand and particles of quartz which covered the ancient channel of the river, having been in past ages washed down and deposited by the water of the stream when flowing in its old bed. The average earnings of the miners in this district were from £1 to £2 a day. The Fort Yale diggings were higher up the Fraser River, and many of the miners in this part and on the Thompson River made from £400 to £800 during the season of 1858. The more experienced miners, however, were not content with these alluvial diggings, and made their way higher up the river, believing that the fine gold of the Lower Fraser was to be accounted for by the disintegration of quartz veins from which coarse gold was separated by the abrasion of water. This correct theory led the practical miners to prospect the Fraser and its tributaries north of Alexandra, and late

in 1859 gold was found on the Quesnelle River. In 1860 some of the bars in the Quesnelle yielded as much as £12 to the hand per day; but this was not lasting, and the Quesnelle River was practically abandoned for the time. In 1860, in the fall of the year, Antler Creek, the first of the Cariboo mining districts, was discovered. In 1861 enormous quantities of gold were taken out of Antler Creek. During that summer the estimated yield of this creek was over £2000 per day. Close upon the finding of Antler Creek followed the finding of other rich creeks, Lightning, Keithley's, Cunningham's, and, richest of all, William's Creek, where the town of Barkerville now stands. About this time were published in the *Times* the famous letters of their Victoria correspondent (Mr. Donald Fraser), which led so many to go out to British Columbia to seek their fortunes.

In the meantime the whole aspect of Victoria and New Westminster was changed; after the first rush to Victoria, of which I have spoken, in 1858 there came a reaction, and the population dwindled down again to something like 1200, and the business became stagnant till the close of 1860, when those who returned successful from Quesnelle brought good reports of the upper country, when there was again some speculation in land and prices went up.

In 1859 Bishop Hills came out to Victoria as Bishop of Columbia, and the staff of clergy was considerably increased. The episcopal see was founded principally by the munificence of the Baroness Burdett Coutts. Bishop Hills was most enthusiastic and indefatigable in his work, and by establishing schools and missions in Vancouver Island and on the mainland he added much to the social advancement of the colony. It was easy for those of other denominations, and even of so-called churchmen, to find fault with the work of an energetic churchman, and it was the fashion at one time



to slander the excellent bishop for lending out money which was entrusted to him for investment for the benefit of the diocese, at rates of interest which seemed to be high as compared with English rates of interest, but the bishop was bound to do the best that he could for the trust whose funds he administered. Few who knew Bishop Hills in the early days of British Columbia realised how much he did for the benefit of the Church in the colony, and what sacrifices of income and comfort he made for the benefit of others.

Prior to the arrival of the first bishop, the English Church in Vancouver Island had been under the charge of the Rev. E. Cridge, who went out in early days as chaplain to the Hudson Bay Company. Mr. Cridge was highly esteemed by all classes, and was made first Dean of the Cathedral after the establishment of the bishopric; unfortunately there was a breach a few years afterwards, and Dean Cridge seceded from the Anglican Church and became bishop of what was called the Reformed Church of England in Vancouver Island.

In New Westminster, the capital of British Columbia, Dr. Wright, an army chaplain, was, until the arrival of Bishop Hills, the only resident clergyman of the Church of England.

Amongst other clergymen who came out with Bishop Hills was the present Bishop of Norwich, who was the first Rector of New Westminster, and with the Rev. L. Brown, Rector of Lilloett, was one of the first to conduct a Church of England service in Cariboo. The Rev. Charles Garrett, and Archdeacon Woods, the Principal of the Collegiate School in Victoria, were amongst the early English clergy in the island. Mr. Garrett, about 1868, went down to San Francisco, where he was a very popular preacher, and subsequently became Bishop of Texas.

The Roman Catholic clergy in Vancouver Island were an excellent, hard-working body, unremitting in

their work amongst the Indians. Bishop De Mers, their first bishop, was held in high esteem.

There were excellent clergy of many other denominations; amongst the Hudson Bay Company the Scotch predominated, and the ministers of the Scotch Church were ably represented and well supported.

About the same period another great personality arrived in British Columbia, for in 1859 the Law Courts were first established on the mainland, and Mr. Begbie arrived from England to take up the position of Chief-Justice. A Chancery barrister of great culture, a scholar of no mean ability, some of the old residents of the Hudson Bay school prophesied his failure as a judge in the mixed and unruly crowd of adventurers amongst whom he was called upon to administer the law; but these soon found out their mistake. A polished gentleman, fond of field-sports, an expert with his gun and his rod, the new Chief-Justice speedily fell into the ways of this rough country and accommodated himself to the life. He might be seen on his way up to Cariboo, to hold the Assizes, with his pack train carrying his tents, provisions, cooking utensils, and bath, sometimes riding and sometimes on foot, with his gun or his rod in his hand, and seldom during the 500-mile journey would he be without trout and game. The rough miners were inclined to jeer at this judge, of whose scholarship they had heard so much; but they very soon found out that a judge had come amongst them who was well able to hold his own, and although throughout his career he was a terror to evil-doers, he was not only thoroughly respected but also beloved by all who knew him, especially by the lawyers who practised in his Court. The Gold Commissioners and Magistrates, who were most of them appointed in 1859, were of a very high class, and the law throughout the colony was well administered: when the two colonies were united, Mr. Begbie became Chief-Justice of the

two colonies and took up his residence at Victoria. Soon after British Columbia entered the Dominion of Canada the Chief-Justice was knighted, and when Sir Matthew Baillie Begbie died, after a very short illness, his death was mourned by every grade of society.

As I have stated, the population of Victoria decreased again very much after the first rush in 1858, and it was not until the celebrated letters of the *Times* correspondent caused something like a second rush to Victoria in 1862 that town lots rose again in value. The large finds of gold in Cariboo in 1863-64 brought prosperity again to the capital, and there was a large increase of business of every sort, with great hope of some years of prosperity; but again there came a period of stagnation, although gold-mining was going on steadily, and the trade of Victoria was kept up through its being an absolutely free port.

The next material change that occurred in the government of the two colonies was when a governor for each colony was sent out from England. The first to arrive was Captain Kennedy, who landed in Esquimalt Harbour in March 1864, and was received with great manifestations of loyalty and respect. Governor Kennedy had had some experience as a colonial governor, and coming as he did from Western Australia, where at that time there was a convict establishment, his manner was at first thought somewhat too peremptory for the very independent population of Victoria; but this wore off when the colonists came to know their new governor better, and he became very popular. Mr. Seymour arrived in the autumn of the same year as Governor of British Columbia, and the rule of these two gentlemen was a striking contrast to the régime of the Hudson Bay factor. On the advent of the new governors, Mr. Douglas retired into private life and received the honour of knighthood. The next material change that took place in Vancouver Island was the

abolition of the free port, which was a very serious blow to the trade of Victoria. This change was brought about through the instrumentality of Amos de Cosmos, a gentleman of considerable ability, the proprietor of the first newspaper of the colony, and one of the first representatives of the city of Victoria. In the House of Assembly the free port and tariff party were somewhat equally divided, and Mr. De Cosmos challenged the free-port member for the city to resign; the challenge was accepted, and the free port was a lost cause.

The next change was the union of the two colonies in 1867 under Mr. Seymour as governor, and the capital was established at Victoria. Upon the death of Mr. Seymour, Mr. afterwards Sir Anthony Musgrave became governor until Confederation in 1871, when British Columbia became a province of the Dominion of Canada. Mr. Musgrave was probably the ablest governor that British Columbia ever had.

Confederation with the Dominion was not carried without considerable opposition. A few years previously Confederation was the main question at a general election for members of the House of Assembly; those on the island who advocated Confederation, led by Mr. De Cosmos, were all thrown out. Annexation to the States was boldly spoken of, but in the election of 1871 Confederation became a Government measure and was carried, after about a fortnight's debate, by a substantial majority. The nominal leader for Government was the then Attorney-General, Mr. Crease, who afterwards became a Puisne Judge, and on his retirement from the Bench was knighted; but the real leader of the debate was Mr. Joseph Trutch, then Chief Commissioner of Works. Mr. Trutch was one of the pioneers who had done much for the colony in planning the roads to the mines and in bridge-building. Mr. Trutch was one of the Commissioners sent to Ottawa to arrange the terms upon which British Columbia was



to enter the Dominion, and became the first Lieutenant-Governor of the province. He had a difficult part to play, but his business habits and great administrative ability fitted him for the post, and he discharged his duties to the satisfaction of the British Columbians generally. Sir Joseph Trutch, although he now resides chiefly in Cornwall, retains a considerable property in British Columbia, and keeps up his interest in the colony for which he has done so much, and in which the best years of his life were spent.

One word about the society in the colony. In my humble opinion there was no pleasanter society to be found in any part of the British Empire than we had in Victoria in the sixties. We had always ships of her Majesty's Navy at Esquimalt, and as the flag-ship of the admiral in the Pacific was always stationed at Esquimalt during a portion of every year, we had the advantage of a number of naval officers to assist us in our various sports and entertainments. A number of retired army officers were settled in our midst; a baronet carried on a dairy and garden farm, and his lady might be seen carrying her butter and eggs to market any day. There was no formality, no conventionality, but geniality, friendliness, and equality were the characteristics of our society.

The condition of the two colonies gradually improved after they were united, and more attention was paid to other industries, notably, the coal-trade increased very materially. Established originally by the Vancouver Coal Company, of London, at Nanaimo, the exportation of coal to San Francisco steadily increased. In 1865 Mr. Robert Dunsmuir discovered another very valuable coal seam, and, aided with capital by Captain Horace Douglas Lascelles, the commander of the gunboat *Forward*, established the Harewood Coal-Mine, which proved a source of great wealth to its discoverer and increased the trade of Nanaimo enormously.

Farming, also, and fruit-growing were specially attended to after the gold excitement had waned; many of those who had come to Victoria to seek their fortunes, either in the gold-fields or in the trade that sprung up in consequence of the mines, remained to cultivate the land. The Hudson Bay Company and their tenant farmers had established many excellent gardens in the country districts in the early fifties, and even in the forties, but it was not until the sixties that any large tracts of land came under cultivation. Vancouver Island took the lead in agriculture and fruit-growing, in the Saanich Peninsula farming settlements were established very early, and at the present day there are in this neighbourhood many splendid orchards and homesteads as good as can be found in Kent or Devonshire. Maple Bay, Cowichan, and Comox can also boast of some excellent farms. Nanainno, also, in addition to its coal has some tolerably good garden land, and in Salt Spring Island excellent crops are produced. The timber of Vancouver Island is perhaps one of its most valuable products. It has been said, by those whose judgment can hardly be disputed, that Vancouver Island and British Columbia produce the best qualities of timber to be found in the world. The Douglas pine is probably the most valuable for building purposes, but the pitch-pine and cedar must not be forgotten. The Douglas pine is highly prized for spars. One of these was sent some years ago by Captain Stamp from his estate at Alberni to Kew Gardens. Perhaps this spar is one of the most perfect that ever was cut—as straight as an arrow, and tapering gradually until it seems to finish off in a point. When shipped from Vancouver Island it was upwards of 220 feet in height, but it is not so high as it stands in Kew Gardens by many feet.

There are several lumber-mills on the island as

well as on the mainland, and there is a growing trade with China and Australia.

On the mainland, along the valleys of the Fraser and Thompson Rivers, cattle ranches were early established, and have very much increased in the last twenty-five years. The Okanagan Valley now boasts of the most extensive farms and the largest cattle ranches in the whole province. The Kootenay district also contains some excellent farming land, although at present, perhaps, its gold-mines attract more attention than its grazing land. The Canadian Pacific Railway has opened up this Kootenay district very much, and the large population which has been attracted to this district by the gold stimulates the farming and dairy-ing interests considerably.

Another very important industry in the Province arises from the fisheries. Salmon of excellent quality abound in the Fraser and Columbia Rivers, and a large number of canneries are now established at New Westminster and Vancouver, and others have been recently established farther north.

The canneries give employment to a great many hands, for it must be remembered that the tins in which the fish are packed are all manufactured on the spot. A considerable quantity of salmon ~~are~~ also sent across the continent in ice by rail. It was thought at one time that it would be a profitable business to pack salmon in this way for Australia, and even for London, but this cannot be said to have assumed large proportions as a trade at present. In addition to salmon there are abundance of herring; halibut of very large size are also plentiful. Sturgeon up to 1000 lb. weight are numerous in the Fraser, and delicious trout are taken in the lakes both in Vancouver Island and on the mainland.

The climate of the Province of British Columbia, of course, varies considerably. Vancouver Island is

one of the most charming climates which a native of Great Britain or Ireland can find in any part of the Empire. "Genial, productive, and salubrious," as Macfie, the first historian of British Columbia, puts it very forcibly. The winters at Victoria are usually mild, with some frost and snow, but cattle can generally find food enough in the fields without any special provision being made for them; and occasionally, such as in the winter of 1861-62, long frosts with snow on the ground for a month or six weeks are experienced. On the mainland, even in Vancouver City and New Westminster, the winters are more severe, and farther north long winters prevail; but it is well known that the Pacific coast is not so cold as the Atlantic. The summers are splendid, with little or no rain from May till November, and yet the earth never seems to become parched.

The capital of the Province, Victoria, with a population of about 20,000, is pleasantly situated on a small arm of the sea, commanding a splendid view of the Strait of Georgia, with Mount Baker, always snow-capped, in the distance. Victoria also possesses a splendid natural park, with a high knoll in the centre, and fringed with pines and oaks. Part of Beacon Hill is used as a racecourse, and here also are the cricket and football grounds, and a fine cycle track. Some of the finest private residences, with magnificent sea views, are on the immediate outskirts of the park.

Victoria possesses a good harbour, with steamers running daily to and from Vancouver City on the mainland. Victoria harbour is good for vessels drawing up to eighteen feet. About three miles from Victoria is the harbour of Esquimalt, about three miles long, and more than a mile and a half broad, with an average depth of about seven fathoms.

The Dominion Government have built a dry dock at Esquimalt, in which vessels of large size can be docked.



The mainland possesses Coal Harbour, at the entrance to Burrard Inlet. A few miles north of the Fraser River, between Coal Harbour and English Bay, is situated Vancouver City, the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway, whence the ocean steamers for China and Australia start.

Undoubtedly much of the best land in the Province is already taken up, nevertheless there is still abundance left for sturdy British families who desire a new outlet for their energies and wish to remain under the old flag; and with its good climate and vast mineral resources it is probably one of the most promising places for British settlers. Land can still be acquired on very easy terms. As the output of gold in the province increases, so will agriculture, cattle-raising, and other industries develop. It seems extraordinary that the surplus population of the mother country do not more readily avail themselves of the opportunity of transplanting themselves to the England of the Pacific coast, where they would enjoy the same freedom as in Great Britain, and where their children would be taught in schools as good as—I will not say superior to—the modern schools of the old country.

Long may the distant province of the Pacific coast enjoy her prosperity, and as her population grows may her wealth increase.

## APPENDIX

### THE YUKON GOLD-FIELDS

SINCE the above lecture on British Columbia was delivered, there have been vast new discoveries of gold in British Columbia and the North-West Territories of the Dominion, which seem likely to bring a large increase of trade and population to British Columbia, and I have been asked to add to this sketch some particulars which I have been able to obtain respecting the marvellous discoveries of gold in the North-West Territories of

Canada, on the Yukon River and its tributary streams, more particularly on what is popularly called the Klondyke, but which, to describe it correctly, is the Thronduic Creek.

There is no doubt whatever of the richness of the Yukon gold-fields. The existence of gold reefs in the extreme north of British Columbia, as well as in the United States territory of Alaska, has been long known, and the Canadian Government surveyors have for some years been aware that the quartz mountains of the North-West Territories would, when the difficulties of reaching them were overcome, yield a rich harvest to gold-seekers. It cannot be said that these difficulties are materially diminished at present, but it is hoped that the arrangements in progress in the autumn of 1897 will result in making the Yukon as accessible as those districts of British Columbia which only a few years ago were deemed inaccessible, but are now served by competing railways.

It is probable that there will be a great rush to the Yukon gold-fields this year, much too large a rush in point of fact, for there will not be proper travelling facilities this year. Three companies have obtained charters to build railways from the coast to the head of inland navigable waters, but it is unlikely that the connection will be made in time for those who desire to work at the mines next summer.

I have just seen a friend who only arrived a few days ago from British Columbia. He gives me a more promising account of the prospects on the Yukon than I had expected to hear. He tells me, and I have perfect confidence in what he says, that the Dominion Government are not seeking to give too much prominence or publicity to the very favourable reports that they have received of the rich prospects; there is abundance of gold for all, but it is very undesirable that either prospectors or those seeking employment in the gold-fields should arrive in large numbers before there is sufficient supply of food available; late in the summer there will be plentiful supplies of provisions, and the gold will not be exhausted this season, nor for many years to come. There is an immense extent of gold-bearing rock in the district, which will take some years to prospect; but the Yukon gold-fields never will be poor man's diggings, companies will be formed in abundance for working claims this year. I trust that British speculators will not be too eager to invest in such mines until they have been

able to ascertain that they are being directed and carried on by trustworthy people. The exposure of the frauds in connection with the Central Klondyke Gold Mining and Trading Company, Limited, which is now in liquidation, will not, it is to be feared, deter other individuals with fraudulent intentions and designs upon the pockets of simple English investors or speculators, from putting forward schemes of an equally fraudulent character if they find an opportunity.

Those wishing to go out to the Yukon district must well consider the cost, and they must also think whether they are likely to be able to endure the climate, and whether they can exist upon the food which they get in such mining districts. I have been in the Cariboo myself, and I know what the sufferings are to those not inured to such a climate; what is called mountain fever is a terrible ordeal to go through. No one ought to start for Yukon River without ample means; in estimating expenses a considerable amount must be added for contingencies over and above railway and steamer fares, and the cost of food for at least six months must be taken into account. I know very well what I should consider sufficient myself, but then I should not be tempted to take such a journey unless I could do it in comfort and have something left for investment when I reached the Yukon. Information should be sought at the office of the High Commissioner for Canada, 17 Victoria Street, S.W., in preference to any other source, for the all-sufficient reason that more is known in that office than can be known by private individuals, and inquirers may rely upon having good practical advice given them, not only as to the way to reach the gold-fields by those who have knowledge and are ready and willing to impart it, but they will also be shown where there are desirable places for settlement if the search for gold does not yield them the satisfaction which they expected it would.

This appendix was written in February 1898. Much more is now known about Yukon than was at that time. I would recommend those who desire to know more about the Yukon River and how to get there to read the admirable paper on "Klondyke," read before the Royal Colonial Institute on 31st January last by Miss Flora Shaw, and the discussion which followed.

## THE NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES OF CANADA

By SIDNEY G. B. CORYN

WESTWARD of Winnipeg the almost unbroken prairie stretches for 800 miles, traversed by the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway. South of the railway main line and of its branches is the United States frontier. To the north lie the illimitable plains of the North-West Territories. Of this vast plain of 190,000 square miles of land, the southern portion derives a special importance from the proximity of the railway, and the consequent intimate knowledge of its characteristics. This great fertile tract is divided into the provinces of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca. Beyond are other territories, as yet only partially explored, including the Yukon with its unknown gold wealth.

Along the line of the railway, settlement has proceeded apace for many years. To-day, a passenger from Winnipeg to the Rocky Mountains would see from the carriage-window a long succession of little prairie settlements with isolated homesteads scattered here and there. He would everywhere see abundant proof of the fertility of the soil and the prosperity of the settlers.

The chief climatic characteristics of the North-West Territories are an almost continually clear atmosphere with warm summers and cold winters. Both rain and snow falls are moderate. The soil is for the most part a deep, rich, black loam, ideally adapted for



wheat-growing. By the system of land survey in force throughout the North-West Territories, any person who is the sole head of a family, or any male over 18 years of age, may acquire land to the extent of 160 acres free of all cost, with the exception of a registration fee of about £2. The whole territory is divided into townships 6 miles square. Each township contains 36 "sections" of 640 acres each, and these again are subdivided into quarter sections of 160 acres each. The 36 sections of each township are numbered consecutively from 1 to 36. The even-numbered sections in each township are reserved by the Government for free homestead entry, with the exception of sections 8 and 26, which are the property of the Hudson Bay Company. It will thus be evident that the quality of the free homestead land is the same as that of lands offered for sale. A road allowance, one chain wide, is provided for between each section north and south, and between every alternate section east and west. In every township sections 11 and 29 are reserved by the Government for school purposes. Education throughout the territories is compulsory and free. The Government grant is nearly 70 per cent. of the total cost. In 1887 there were 111 schools, 125 teachers, and 3144 pupils. At the end of 1896 there were 366 schools in operation, with a staff of 433 teachers, and the number of pupils enrolled was 12,796. The number of school districts organised up to 15th September 1896 is: Public schools, 430; Protestant, 3; Roman Catholic, 55. Total, 488.

The religious needs of the people are well attended to in the North-West Territories. Even in the newest settlements arrangements are made for the religious services of the various denominations.

The schools are altogether unsectarian, religion being taught, when desired, during hours specially

set apart for the purpose. All religious denominations, whether Christian or not, enjoy equal rights in the schools. The religious needs of the adult population are well attended to in the North-West Territories. Even in the newest settlements arrangements are made for the religious services of the various denominations. There are a number of friendly societies in the Provinces, with branches in the smaller places, and in many of the country school-houses which dot the prairie Masonic and other lodges often meet, and gatherings of an intellectual character are often held. There is nothing lacking in town and country to make life enjoyable that could be expected in any new country.

The anxiety which was once felt by some as to fuel has entirely disappeared upon the discovery of enormous coal-fields. It has been ascertained that between Winnipeg and the Rocky Mountains there are some 65,000 square miles of coal-bearing strata.

The Provincial Government of the North-West Territories has its head-quarters at Regina, an important and growing town 357 miles west of Winnipeg. The representative and governmental institutions are, with modifications, modelled after those of Great Britain. A Lieutenant-Governor represents the Queen, and the representatives of the Legislature are chosen by the people. In addition, and for the management of purely local affairs, there is a well-approved municipal system.

For very many years, ever since the opening of the Canadian Pacific Railway, a steady stream of immigration has been poured into the North-West Territories. While this immigration has been mainly from British countries, the unusual advantages at the disposal of colonists have attracted very many settlers from Germany, Russia, Austria, and Scandinavia, who, by their industry and sobriety, have greatly added to the

wealth of the country. The exports of wheat, already large, cannot fail to increase with the spread of colonisation, and there can be very little doubt that before many years the North-West Territories of Canada will hold a commanding position on the wheat market of Europe.

Wheat, however, is by no means the only product of the Territories. As we advance westward, the great stock-raising ranches increase in size and in number, and vast herds of cattle and sheep are annually sent away to the ports of the east. Even in the agricultural districts cattle-raising goes hand in hand with wheat-growing, and the surest elements of success are to be found upon those homesteads where the "combined" system of farming is adopted. As settlement advances, and the home markets become larger, the ranching industry must advance in proportion, while the available supply for export will remain undiminished.

One of the most important features requiring consideration in a new country is the creation of markets for the commodities which the settler has for sale. In the eastern portion of the Territories there has always been a good market for the wheat, which is there the staple product, but westward, until recently, the opportunities have not been so good. The rapid development of the mining countries of British Columbia has, however, materially changed this. The question of a ready-cash market for everything which can be produced may now be said to be satisfactorily settled, and the incoming settler may feel assured of being able to dispose of any produce he may have to sell at remunerative prices.

# CANADIAN WOMEN OF THE TIME AND THE WOMEN MOVEMENT

BY A. C. FORSTER BOULTON, F.R.G.S.

*(Member of the English and Canadian Bar)*

THE early history of Canada is a record of wars, geographical enterprise, the clearance of the land, and the gradual establishment of a self-governing colony, possessing the fullest measure of constitutional freedom. In all this women had their share, but it was for the most part a silent one. The early struggles of the colonists were, in the first place, for security of life and property, and later on for the right to govern themselves. In those stormy days women's rights, in a political sense, were unknown. But as Canada grew and expanded into a young and vigorous nationality, an agitation arose for the more perfect intellectual development of women. The education—the higher education—of women once obtained, their emancipation speedily followed, and now Canada is second to no other country in the world in the organisation of its women. The pent-up talent and vigour of the past has broken out into a freshness and mental strength which seems to carry all before it, and the advocates of women's rights in Canada are among the foremost in eloquence and knowledge in the various women's societies on the continent of America. And it is right that it should be so. For Canada is second to no other country in all movements of a progressive nature. Her educational system is probably superior to any in the world, and it



is therefore fit and proper, in a country where social reforms are ever uppermost in the thoughts of the people, that women should be especially interested in the progress of their sex. It is recognised on all sides that the great changes which have swept over the country during the last hundred years, transforming politics, business, social and religious life, must necessarily have had their effect in modifying greatly the condition of women. It is allowed even by the lovers of the "good old times," that to acquiesce, even though it be reluctantly, in the changes wrought by the ballot-box, the railway, and the factory, and at the same time to declaim vehemently against the entrance of women into political and industrial life, is illogical and absurd. We have done with the days of the mail-coach, the shilling postage, the crinoline, and the poke bonnet. We have done with the days when gentlemen were not thought disgraced by nightly drunkenness, and rioting and corruption were the accepted methods of elections, and the empire was but a name. Those days are past and gone, and with them has passed away the idea of the subjection of women. In Canada the woman movement once begun has had little to retard it; and in the free air of the greatest colony of the empire the intellectual development of all classes has stimulated the growth, as it has shown the necessity, of a movement in favour of women taking a greater share in the social and industrial life of the country. The growth of the towns, the increase in manufactures and the accumulation of wealth have brought in their train much the same social problems which have existed for generations in England. Fortunately for Canada the class distinctions which so often interfere with English social reforms are practically unknown, and all classes work together for the common good. In such a community the liquor interest has not the same support as it has in England, and public opinion would not tolerate the

existence of barmaids. Nor do women frequent the public-house as they do in England, and it is a rare thing to see a woman in the bar of a licensed house. These facts are not the outcome of the women's movement. They are perhaps to be traced in the origin of the Colony. Canada, it must not be forgotten, was founded by men of a more or less puritanical mould, descendants of Covenanters and English Nonconformists, and apart from this the fact that in the early history of Canada, as in all colonies, women were in a minority, has from the earliest times caused them to be held in the highest respect, and a homage paid to them which is to this day unknown in England. But if public opinion would not tolerate the lowering of women to the extent of permitting them to serve or drink in a public-house, it had no such scruple in regard to the sterner sex, and consequently with the growth of the population, while the old ideas regarding women have remained unchanged, the drink question has become one of the great problems of the day. Drunkenness among men must bring misery into the home, and women have, therefore, a very real interest in meeting the question, and facing it with a strong determination to stamp out the drink traffic altogether, or at any rate so limit it as to do away with the evil effects of intoxication. Hence the foundation of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, one of the largest of the many women's organisations of Canada, and one which has its branches all over the country. This Union it was which set in motion the prohibition agitation some seven or eight years ago, and although it has in concert with kindred societies so far failed in securing a general prohibitory law, it has none the less done splendid work in restricting the consumption of strong drink and increasing the number of total abstainers. Foremost in this work has been a Toronto lady, Mrs. Annie O. Rutherford, who combines a knowledge of

organisation and the energy of an ardent temperance worker with the gift of high eloquence. In no social work more than temperance is this great gift more needed, and on the platform both in Canada and the United States Mrs. Rutherford has won many disciples to the cause she advocates, as well as shown her ability as a Canadian woman to hold her own with the women advocates of the great neighbouring Republic.

Another Toronto lady who has been an active temperance worker with Mrs. Rutherford is Mrs. Bascom, and it is to the joint exertions of these two earnest women that the present strong position of women's temperance work in the Queen City is largely due. In Ottawa, Winnipeg, Halifax and other centres, there are branch organisations of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, which bids fair to take the largest share in the temperance work of the country. Toronto as the greatest English-speaking community in Canada naturally includes the head-quarters of many other movements, and among them may be mentioned the Deaconesses' Training School. The school building on Jarvis Street is one of the many architectural features of the city, and cost over £25,000, the money being left for the purpose by the late H. M. Massey. The objects of the Deaconesses' Institution is to afford opportunities for Bible study, and impart an elementary medical knowledge. With these two powerful aids in hand, the deaconesses then go forth to minister to the needy, nurse the sick, and afford consolation to all who may require it. Miss E. J. Scott is the well-known head of this essentially women's work. Other institutions whose head-quarters are in Toronto are the Young Women's Christian Guild, which is the centre or rallying place for women coming to seek employment, and of which Miss Bainbridge is the leading spirit, and the Christian Endeavour movement, which seeks under the presidency of Miss Lottie Williams to

create a deeper sense of spiritual life in young people, and to bring about a greater amount of personal work as the outcome of this feeling. In Ottawa the Women's Humane Society has done noble work in the establishment of a City Ambulance, and most of all in its work among children and young girls. By its exertions a Bill was passed through the Legislature for the prevention of cruelty to, and the better protection of, children, and now the law can be successfully appealed to, to prevent cruelty being done to those who are helpless by reason of their infancy to resist. All of these organisations and many others, such as the Rescue Work, Children's Aid Societies, Guilds, &c., have for the most part branches in every town and city in Canada. Many of them have been established for years past; some of them are the creation of quite recent times. They show that the women's movement is wide, and that its ramifications extend into all quarters of the nation's life. It is, however, in a comparatively recent period that the more perfect organisation of women's work has been brought about. The foundation of a society which should confine within its borders all the different spheres of woman's work was the act of the Countess of Aberdeen, who marked her husband's period of administration as Governor-General with the inauguration of the National Council of Women of Canada.

This great Council was founded, as its preamble implies, because its founders believed that the best good of the home and the nation would be advanced by greater unity of thought, sympathy, and purpose of the women of Canada, and that an organised movement of women would best conserve the highest good of the family and the state. The Council is organised in the interests of no one propaganda, and has no power over the organisations which constitute it beyond that of suggestion and sympathy, and no Society



entering the Council renders itself liable to be interfered with in respect of its complete organic unity, independence, or methods of work, or committed to any principle or method of any other Society, or to any act or utterance of the Council itself, beyond compliance with the terms of its constitution. The officers of this National Council are a President, Hon. Vice-Presidents (the wives of Lieutenant-Governors), two Vice-Presidents at large (elected by ballot), a Vice-President for each province, *ex-officio* Vice-Presidents (the Presidents of all local Councils, and all federating Societies that are nationally organised), a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, and a Treasurer, and these officers constitute the Executive Committee to control and provide for the general interest of the Council. The members of this National Council of Women consist of Local Councils formed of Federations or Associations of Women, and Societies of Women nationally organised, who may have by their own vote expressed the wish to join, and who have been approved by the Executive Committee. The National Council has recommended a constitution for local Councils, and owing to the suggestion, numerous branches of the National Council of Women now exist in different parts of the country. The preamble of other local Councils, which has been drawn up by women most experienced in all branches of women's work, reveals the breadth and character of this work. It states that, as the more intimate knowledge of one another's work will result in larger sympathy and greater unity of thought, and therefore in more effective action, certain Associations of women interested in philanthropy, religion, education, literature, art, and social reform have determined to organise local Councils. It will be seen from the foregoing reference and remarks that the National Council of Women of Canada is an organisation capable of bringing into

close touch the women of the East with those of the West, and making each understand the needs and endeavours of the others whose common citizenship with herself had been hardly realised before except in name. It also enables women in one Province to find out beneficial laws in force in another, and then work for their adoption in their own section of the Dominion; it enables them to study through Council work all needed reforms, and plans and methods for benefiting those who in various ways need help and encouragement; and further it bands together women of different races and creeds and of varied interests in one national life. Prominent amongst the matters of importance which have engaged the attention of the local Councils and National Societies, have been the establishment of the Victorian Order of Nurses, the housing of the aged and respectable poor, an inquiry into the number of feeble-minded women in the country and not in institutions, the problem of finding work for the unemployed, and the regulations concerning the appointment of women on School Boards.

The scheme for the foundation of the Victorian Order of Nurses is a counterpart of the movement in Great Britain for establishing the Queen's Jubilee Nurses, under the special patronage of Her Majesty. To carry out this scheme, which will place efficiently-trained, skilful, certified nurses within the reach of all classes of the population, it is estimated that a considerable sum will be required, averaging five hundred dollars per annum for every nurse enrolled. The scheme has been warmly endorsed at public meetings held in all the principal cities of the Dominion, and has now become an accomplished fact, branches of the order being established in all the principal cities and towns in the Dominion; even Klondyke in the far north-west having its local branch, with nurses sent to it from the older provinces.

The Countess of Aberdeen, who was the founder of the National Council, and whose steady work has done so much for its development, is so well known in the British Empire that it is scarcely necessary to refer to her personality. It is however not too much to say that she possesses rare executive ability and great capacity for work. Before going to Canada she was for years connected with several women's associations in Great Britain, and was therefore able to give Canadians the benefit of a large and varied experience, and in a variety of ways she has contributed materially in assisting her husband in his work of national unification. Not the least of her Excellency's gifts are those which have made her so widely known as a writer, and her series of descriptive sketches entitled "Through Canada with a Kodak" has done much to make the Dominion more popularly and widely known. In acknowledgment of her public services, her Excellency in 1897 received from Queen's University, Kingston, the honorary degree of LL.D. In the United States she has been elected president of the International Women's Health Protective League, and she is also president of the International Council of Women. To quote the words of a Canadian journalist, Faith Fenton, in the *Home Journal* :—

"Rideau Hall has seen fair mistresses who have filled well their high office in social obligations and gracious courtesies, but none have come so closely in touch with the people as her Excellency has done. By travel through our broad-stretching land, by sojourn in its cities, by gathering the women together, and by counsel concerning their needs, by cordial recognition of all who are working for national progress, by the little personal word of encouragement to the struggler or the troubled, by the kindly act that tells of the kindlier thought, by all that tact can suggest and quick sympathy offer, the Countess of Aberdeen has

reached to the very heart of Canadian womanhood, and stands to-day one with us in our needs, our strivings, and our fulfilments."

Lady Laurier is one of the vice-presidents at large of the National Council of Women of Canada. She has been described as a woman of "tact, judgment, and enthusiasm," and as one born to share with her distinguished husband in the honours of the exalted position to which he has been called.

Canadian women have through the establishment of the National Council placed the women's movement on a permanent footing, and their work in the years to come cannot fail to have a great influence for good in the progressive life of the Canadian people. The literature of the young Dominion is also being enriched by many charming lady writers, who by their pen are doing much to awaken the national life. Space is too short to refer even in brief to more than a few, but the writings of Agnes Maule Machar, Faith Fenton, Lady Edgar, and Lady MacDonald call for more than passing notice.

Miss Fenton, who was born and educated in Toronto, early developed a talent for writing (inherited from her grandfather, who was a skilful song-writer and dramatist), which soon led her to find her true vocation. She came into notice more particularly as a miscellaneous writer during the existence of the *Toronto Empire*, her descriptions of public men and the running comments in that paper being publicly read and admired. After the fusion of the *Empire* with the *Mail* she wrote for a brief period for the *New York Sun*, and was afterwards editor-in-chief of the *Canadian Home Journal*, established in September 1895. She writes equally well in prose or verse, and has been placed by well-known English critics at the head of the lady journalists in Toronto.

Lady Edgar, who is an active member of the



Women's Canadian Historical Association, is Vice-President of the United Empire Loyalist Association, and has gained distinction in the literary field as author of "Ten Years of Upper Canada in Peace and War," 1805-1815 (Toronto, 1895), a volume that has received and earned the special commendation of Mr. Gladstone, and the principal English and Canadian reviews.

Baroness Earncliffe, or to give her the more well-known title, Lady MacDonald, has contributed much that will live in the literature of her country. Her position for so many years as the wife of the prime minister and by far the greatest man in Canadian political life, has given her a unique knowledge of Canadian politics and society. Miss Agnes Maule Machar has written much that is interesting, but her historical contribution, "Stories of New France," at once places her in the forefront of Canadians, who are both chroniclers of their national history and writers of note.

No sketch of Canadian women could be complete without a reference to Miss Martin, the first woman who was admitted to the practice of the law.

Miss Clara Brett Martin is a native of Ontario, and was educated at Trinity University, Toronto (B.A. 1890, B.C.L. 1897). She was articled first with Messrs. Mulock, Miller, Crowther & Montgomery, and afterwards with Messrs. Blake, Lash & Cassels, and was called to the bar 1897. It required two special enactments of the Legislature to permit of her enrolment as a solicitor and barrister. Special regulations were framed by the Law Society of Upper Canada. Under these regulations every woman admitted to practise as a barrister-at-law shall pay the same fees as those paid by other students-at-law. She shall become subject to the statutes, rules, and provisions of the society as in

other cases. And upon appearing before convocation upon the occasion of her being admitted to practise, shall appear in a barrister's gown, worn over a black dress, wearing a white necktie, and with her head uncovered. She was an unsuccessful candidate for school trustee in Toronto, 1894, but afterwards became a member of the Collegiate Institute Board.

# THE CANADIAN ABORIGINES

BY W. WILLIAMS AND S. G. B. CORYN

It is especially difficult to speak historically and numerically of a people so nomadic in their habits, and living in so vast a territory, as the Canadian Red Indians. As settlement has advanced westward and northward, so detailed and comprehensive particulars have supplemented the estimates and the reports of Hudson Bay factors and agents. At the present time the available information as to the Canadian aborigines is fairly adequate, and as accurate as it is sympathetic.

In 1856, the number of forts erected and owned by the Hudson Bay Company was 154. These forts were scattered over the whole country, and were usually the one point of contact between the red men and the white, forming centres of civilisation and law. The Red Indian tribes necessarily fell largely under their influence and government, an influence mainly depending upon toleration and rigid justice, indispensable qualities where large numbers of natives are to be successfully controlled by a strictly limited number of whites.

That the policy of the Hudson Bay Company towards the Red Indians was based upon a wise humanity it will be sufficient to quote from the standing rules of the Company, issued to their officials:—

“That the Indians be treated with kindness and indulgence, and mild and conciliatory means resorted to in order to encourage industry, repress vice, and inculcate morality; that the use of spirituous liquors

be gradually discontinued in the very few districts in which it is yet indispensable; and that the Indians be liberally supplied with requisite necessaries, particularly with articles of ammunition, whether they have the means of paying for it or not, and that no gentleman in charge of district or post be at liberty to alter or vary the standard or usual mode of trade with the Indians except by special permission of Council."

Some statistics of the aboriginal population of Canada were given before a Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed in 1857, to consider the state of the British Possessions in North America. These figures are useful as affording perhaps the first reliable numerical returns on this subject:—

Indian population in the North-West . . .	60,300
"          "          "    Montreal Department .	3,100
"          "          "    Oregon . . .	5,400
"          "          "    British Columbia .	75,000
Esquimaux . . . . .	4,000
	<hr/>
	147,800

The above may be classified according to races somewhere as follows:—

Thickwood Indians, east of Rockies . . .	35,000
Plains Tribes, Blackfeet, Assiniboines, Pagaris, Crees, &c. . . . .	25,300
Oregon and British Columbia Indians . .	80,400
Indians in Eastern Canada . . . . .	3,100
Esquimaux . . . . .	4,000
	<hr/>
	147,800

The respective characteristics of the various tribes differ very widely from one another, although the common constraining influence of the law may cause such differences to be less apparent. Thus the Assiniboine Indians acquired a special character for consistent treachery and cruelty, and the Saulteaux Indians for



pride and laziness. Marked characteristics may also be found among the plain Indians as compared with those tribes inhabiting the forests.

In 1876, the Canadian Indians received a great reinforcement by the arrival of a large contingent from United States territory. Into the causes which led to the Indian exodus across the frontier it is not necessary here to enter. During December of that year United States Indians, numbering 500 men, 1000 women, and 1400 children, entered Canadian territory with 3500 horses, and camped east of the Cypress Hills. Towards the end of May, in the following year, Sitting Bull, with 135 lodges, also crossed the frontier and joined their friends, and these bands were further augmented by parties of Nez Perces and other tribes. Considering their warlike nature, they gave remarkably little trouble to the mounted police force, showing great appreciation of the kindness of their reception, the justice with which they were treated, and the absence of the molestation to which they had perhaps been accustomed. In 1881, Sitting Bull and a portion of his following returned to United States territory.

At the present time the Canadian Indians give no trouble whatever, except in the occasional direction of drunkenness, petty larceny, or horse-stealing—offences not entirely unknown amongst white men.

For some time past the policy of the Canadian Government has been to group the Indians, as far as possible, upon reservations, which are as numerous and as far apart as possible. The advantages of this system have been well epitomised as follows:—

The reservations do not arrest the march of settlement in any one direction, and consequently do not to any great extent excite the cupidity of settlers.

The Indians, when congregated in small numbers, cling less tenaciously to their habits, customs, and

modes of thought, and are in every way more amenable to the influences of civilisation.

They have less opportunity for devising mischief, and lack the combination to carry it into operation.

The danger of quarrels among hereditary enemies is avoided.

The game which contributes to an Indian's maintenance does not disappear with such rapidity as in the presence of large numbers of hunters.

The Indians find a market for produce and for labour, when distributed through various settled districts, and settlers in turn share equally in any advantage to be gained through furnishing such supplies as beef and flour, which can be purchased locally.

The difficulty of persuading the Indians to settle upon the allotted reservations was greatly minimised by the sudden disappearance of the buffalo, although at the same time new difficulties were thereby created. The task, however, was eventually done, and the government proceeded in its good work by the appointment of Indian agents, in such numbers that the needs and capacities of each individual Indian could be personally considered. A general system of rations was devised and so applied as in no way to pauperise the recipient or promote indolence, while sustaining him up to the point at which he might become self-sustaining.

Every encouragement is given to persuade and to enable the Indian to earn his own living, whether by hiring out his labour or by the sale of such articles as he is able to manufacture. He can obtain almost any special instruction that he may desire, whether it be in manufacturing, in agriculture, or in cattle-raising. A loan system has been inaugurated by which stock cattle are loaned for certain periods, to be eventually returned or paid for. By methods such as this many Indian communities have already become self-supporting, and

many others are making rapid advance in the same direction.

The Indian religions vary one from another almost as much as their customs, and it would be out of place to attempt any serious account of them. In the main they may be said to comprise various aspects of a not undignified nature worship, and the attempts that are inevitably made to modify or change their beliefs into those more in accord with the opinions of the white population around have met with a large measure of failure, and have too often resulted in the destruction of aboriginal virtues without any more exalted substitutes. It may well be that the present generation will not see a merging of the white and red peoples of Canada. For yet a long time the reservations may continue the most suitable home for the latter, as much to their own benefit as to that of the dominant race. But it may be confidently said that the efforts that have been made toward the instruction and the independence of the Red Indian have been so far fruitful of success as to encourage a continuance of method and of work worthy of the best humanitarian efforts of a great nation.

# A SHORT REVIEW OF CANADIAN LITERATURE

BY SIR J. G. BOURINOT, K.C.M.G., LL.D., D.C.L., LIT.D.

*(Honorary Secretary of the Royal Society of Canada ; Honorary Fellow of the Royal Colonial Institute, &c. ; Author of the "Story of Canada" (Nations Series), "Parliamentary Procedure and Government in Canada," and other works on the History and Constitution of the Dominion)*

THE five millions of people of two nationalities who own Canada from the Atlantic to the Pacific, are displaying a mental activity commensurate with their expansion of territory and accumulation of wealth. If it were possible, within the compass of this article, to give a complete list of the many histories, poems, essays, and pamphlets that have appeared from the Canadian press, during the thirty years that the Dominion of Canada has been in existence, the number would astonish all who have not followed our intellectual progress. In fact, all the scientific, historical, and poetical contributions of three decades, whether good, bad, or indifferent in character, make up a quite pretentious library, which shows the growth of what may be called Canadian literature, since it deals with subjects essentially of Canadian interests.

The attention that is now devoted to the study and writing of history, and the collection of historical documents relating to the Dominion, proves clearly the national or thoroughly Canadian spirit that is already animating the educated and cultured class of the people.

I have now before me a list of over a hundred



books, from the portly quarto to the unpretentious duodecimo, which have been printed during a decade of years in Canada or other countries, and all of them dealing with the general or local history of the Dominion and its divisions, or giving the biography of some of the famous men who have written their names indelibly in the annals of the country.

It was the American historian, Francis Parkman, who first lifted Canadian history from its low level of dulness, on which few readers even in Canada itself ventured. This history is even older than that of New England; contemporaneous rather with that of Virginia, since Champlain landed on the heights of Quebec, and laid the foundation of the ancient capital, only a year after the English adventurers of the days of King James stepped on the banks of the river named after the sovereign, and commenced the old town which has long since disappeared before the tides of the ocean that stretches away beyond the shores of the "Old Dominion." Indeed, even before this time, a little band of Frenchmen attempted a settlement by the beautiful basin of Annapolis in Acadia, that land of song and story. Canadian history recalls some of the most striking incidents in the annals of America, and of the ever-memorable contest between England and France for the supremacy on the continent. Even since the days of the French explorers and missionaries, who were the first to reveal the secrets of the mysterious west, and of the Mississippi—even since the close of the great war of seven years for dominion—that conflict which ended practically with the conquest of Quebec and the fall of Wolfe and Montcalm, "united in death and fame," the history of Canada as an English dependency is distinguished by many episodes of deep interest to the statesman and publicist, whether he belongs to the American or Canadian federation.

The coming of the United Empire Loyalists, the patriotism and self-sacrifice of Canadians during the war of 1812-15, the struggle for popular rights which culminated in the rising of 1837-38, the history of fur-traders and explorers in the North-West, the concession and results of responsible government, and its logical sequence—a free, self-governing confederation extending from ocean to ocean—all these are matters which have more than an ordinary interest when broadly and artistically limned on the pages of history. It is easy, then, to understand why so many historical writers have within a few years taken up, successfully in a few cases and unsuccessfully in many more, the various epochs of Canadian development, from the days of Cartier, the discoverer of the St. Lawrence, and of Champlain, the founder of Quebec and New France, down to the risings of the half-breeds or Métis, in the prairie province of Manitoba, and on the banks of the North Saskatchewan, and the execution of their leader, Louis Riel, on the scaffold at Regina, the humble capital of that north-western region, the greater part of which is still an unbroken expanse of prairie land, where wild flowers and grasses grow in rich profusion, but which eventually must become the principal wheat granary of the continent.

Previous to the confederation of 1867, the only history of undoubted merit was that of the French Canadian Garneau, which was distinguished for its clearness of style, industry and research, and scholarly management of the subject. Now that the political passion that so long convulsed the public mind in Canada has disappeared with the causes that gave it birth, one is hardly prepared to make a hero of the demagogue Papineau, who led the French-Canadian rebellion of 1837, as Garneau has attempted in his able work, while the foundation of a new Dominion and the commencement of an era of larger political

life has probably given a somewhat sectional character to such an historical effort. Still, despite its intense French-Canadian spirit, the history written by Mr. Garneau, as well as one by the Abbé Ferland of Laval University, notably illustrate the literary instinct and intellectual strength which have been distinguishing features of the best productions of the able and even brilliant men who have devoted themselves to literature with marked success among their French-Canadian countrymen, who are wont to pay a deeper homage to such literary efforts than the colder, less impulsive English-Canadian temperament has ever shown itself disposed to give to those who have been equally worthy of recognition in the English-speaking provinces.

Since 1867 only two works require special mention among the many which take up so much space on my library shelves. One of these is the history of the days of Montcalm and Lévis—the two most distinguished men in the closing days of the French régime in Canada. It is written by the Abbé Casgrain, who illustrates the studious and literary character of the professors of that great university which bears the name of the first bishop of Canada, Monseigneur Laval, and is one of the most interesting features of the ancient capital of Quebec, on whose heights it stands so conspicuous and dignified a structure. This work is distinguished by all that fervour of the French Canadian which shows itself when it is a question of their illustrious past, and sometimes warps their judgment and reason. The venerable Abbé is one of the ablest members of the Royal Society of Canada, a literary and scientific society, containing members of both nationalities, and illustrating remarkably the literary activity of both since its foundation by the Marquis of Lorne seventeen years ago, and has made many other valuable contributions to the historical literature of the country, notably one on “The

Land of Evangeline," which was deservedly crowned by the French Academy as an admirable example of literary style. A more pretentious general history of Canada is that by an able English Canadian, Dr. Kingsford, also a member of the same society, whose book reached ten octavo volumes before his death. Whilst it shows much industry and conscientiousness on the part of the author, it fails too often to evoke our interest, even when it deals with the striking and picturesque story of the French régime, since the author seems to consider it his duty to be sober and prosaic when Parkman is bright and eloquent. However, the work has undoubted merits—especially the account of the war of 1812—since it throws new light on many controverted points in our history, and assuredly it was never likely to mislead us by a too highly-coloured and imaginative version of the most famous incidents in our annals.

Perhaps the best estimate of the progress of literary culture in Canada can be formed from a careful perusal of the poems of Bliss Carman, Archibald Lampman, Professor Roberts, Wilfred Campbell, and Frederick George Scott, whose poetic efforts have frequently appeared in the leading American and Canadian magazines, and, more rarely, in English periodicals. I mention these names particularly, because from the finish of their verse and their freshness of thought they are confessedly superior to all other Canadian poets, and may fairly claim a place alongside those who now stand foremost amongst American poets since Longfellow, Emerson, Whittier, Bryant, and Lowell have disappeared. Pauline Johnson, who has Indian blood in her veins, the scholarly Archbishop O'Brien of Halifax, Mr. Duncan Campbell Scott, who has also written some admirable short stories in *Scribner's* and other periodicals, Ethelwyn Wetherald, Charles Mair, Sir James Edgar, and several others might be named



to prove that poetry is not a lost art in Canada. In French Canada, two poets of high merit have been produced. The verses of Crémazie, who died in poverty, showed much power and imagination as well as artistic skill. They were imbued with a truly Canadian spirit, with a love for Canada, its scenery, its history, and its traditions, which entitle them to a larger audience than they probably ever had in old France, or even in Canada itself. Mr. Louis Fréchette is a worthy successor of Crémazie, and has won the distinction of having his best work crowned by the French Academy. These two men can fairly claim the highest place in the literature of French Canada.

It would be interesting as well as instructive if some competent critic, with the analytical faculty and the poetic instinct of Matthew Arnold or Saint-Beuve, were to study the English and French Canadian poets, and show whether they are mere imitators of the best models of French and English literature, or whether their work contains within itself those germs which give promise of original fruition in the future. It will be remembered that the French critic, though a poet of merit himself, has spoken of what he calls "the radical inadequacy of French poetry." In his opinion, whatever talent the French poets have for strophe and line, their work as a rule is "too slight, too soon read, too poor in ideas, to influence a serious mind for any length of time." No doubt many others think that, in comparison with the best conceptions of Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, Emerson, Browning, and Tennyson, French poetry is, generally speaking, inadequate for the expression of the most sublime thoughts, of the strongest passions, or of the most powerful imagination, and although it must always please us by its easy rhythm and lucidity of style, it fails to make that vivid impression on the mind and senses, which is the best test of that true poetic genius which in-

fluences generations and ever lives in the hearts of the people. It represents in some respects the lightness and vivacity of the French intellectual temperament under ordinary conditions, and not the strength of the national character, whose depths are only revealed at some crisis which evokes a deep sentiment of patriotism. "Partant pour la Syrie," so often heard in the days of the last Bonaparte régime, probably illustrated this lighter tendency of the French mind, just as the "Marseillaise," the noblest and most impressive of popular poetic outbursts, illustrated national passion evoked by abnormal conditions.

French-Canadian poetry has been purely imitative of French models, like Musset and Gauthier, both in style and sentiment, and consequently lacks strength and originality. It might be thought that in a new country poets would be inspired by original conceptions—that the intellectual fruition would be fresh and vigorous, like some natural products that grow so luxuriantly on the virginal soil of the new Dominion, not like those which grow on land which is renewed and enriched by artificial means after centuries of growth. Perhaps the literature of a colonial dependency, or a relatively new country, must necessarily in its first stages be imitative, and it is only now and then that an original mind bursts the fetters of intellectual subordination. In the United States, Emerson and Hawthorne probably best represented the original thought and imagination of that comparatively new country, just as Aldrich and Howells represent in the first case, English culture in poetry, and in the other the sublimated essence of realism. Walt Whitman's poems certainly show at times much power and originality of conception; but after all they are simply the creations of an eccentric genius, and illustrate a phase of that realism towards which fiction even in America has been tending of late, and

which has been already degraded in France to a naturalism which is positively offensive. He has not influenced to any perceptible extent the intellect of his generation, or elevated the thoughts of his countrymen like the two great minds I have just named. Yet even Whitman's success, relatively small as it was in his own country, arose chiefly from the fact that he attempted to be an American poet, representing the pristine vigour and natural freedom of a new land.

It is when French-Canadian poets become thoroughly Canadian, by the very force of the inspiration of some Canadian subject they have chosen, that we can see them at their best. Fréchette has all the finish of the French poets, and while it cannot be said that he has yet originated great thoughts which are likely to live among even the people whom he has so often instructed and delighted, yet he has given us poems like that on the discovery of the Mississippi, which proves that he is capable of even better things if he would always seek inspiration from the sources of the deeply interesting history of his own country, or enter into the inner mysteries or social relations of his own people, rather than dwell on the lighter shades and incidents of their lives. After all, the poetry that lives is the poetry of human life and human sympathy, of joy and sorrow—the Psalms of David or the grand verse of Dante and Goethe—rather than verses on mountains, rivers, and lakes, or sweetly-worded sonnets to Madame B. or Mademoiselle C. When we compare the English with the French-Canadian poets, we can see what an influence the more picturesque and interesting history of French Canada exercises on the imagination of its writers. The poets that claim Ontario for their home give us rhythmical and pleasing descriptions of the lake and river scenery, of which the varied aspects and moods might well captivate the eye of the poet as well as of the painter. It is very much painting in both

cases; the poet should be an artist by temperament equally with the painter who puts his thoughts on canvas and not in words. Such descriptions as Mr. Wilfred Campbell has given of scenes which one often witnesses on a beautiful summer day whilst resting on the banks of one of the great lakes of Canada, is certainly as effective as any sketch in oil or water-colours could be:—

“ A glimmer of bird-like boats that loom from the far horizon,  
That scud and tack and dip under the grey and the blue ;  
A single gull that floats and skims the waters, and flies on  
Till she is lost like a dream in the haze of the distance too.

A steamer that rises a smoke, then after, a tall dark funnel,  
That moves like a shadow across your water and sky's grey edge ;  
A dull hard beat of a wave that diggeth itself a tunnel,  
Down in the crevices dark under my limestone ledge.”

Or we may follow Bliss Carman to the historic meadows of the Grand Pré in the “ Sweet Acadian Land ”:—

“ Was it a year or lives ago  
We took the grasses in our hands,  
And caught the summer flying low  
Over the waving meadow lands,  
And held it there between our hands ?

The while the river at our feet  
A drowsy inland meadow stream,  
At set of sun the after heat  
Made running gold, and in the gleam  
We freed our birch upon the stream.

There down along the elms at dusk  
We lifted dripping blade to drift,  
Through twilight scented fine like musk,  
Where night and gloom awhile uplift,  
Nor sunder soul and soul adrift.

The night has fallen and the tide  
Now and again comes drifting home,  
Across those aching barrens wide,  
A sigh like driven wind or foam,  
In grief the flood is bursting home.”



Yet it may be said that descriptions of our meadows, prairies, and forests, with their wealth of herbage and foliage, or artistic sketches of pretty bits of lake scenery, have their limitations as respects their influence on the people. Great thoughts or deeds are not bred by scenery; the American poem that has captured the world is not any one of Bryant's delightful sketches of the varied landscape of his native land, but Longfellow's "Evangeline," which is a story of the affection that hopes, and endures, and is patient. Dollard, and the lady of Fort La Tour, are themes which we do not find in prosaic Ontario, whose history is only a century old—a history of stern materialism as a rule, rarely picturesque or romantic, and hardly ever heroic except in some episode of the war of 1812-15, in which Canadians, women as well as men, did their duty faithfully to king and country.

Mr. Lampman touched a chord of human interest in one of his poems, "Between the Rapids," which has been more frequently quoted than perhaps any other by this gifted Canadian. The scene of the poem may be either on the Ottawa or St. Lawrence Rivers, so famous for their rapids, but what gives it a real charm is that touch of sentiment which makes the whole world kin:—

"The point is turned ; the twilight shadow fills  
 The wheeling stream, the soft receding shore ;  
 And on our ears from deep among the hills,  
 Breaks now the rapids' sudden quickening roar,  
 Ah, yet the same, or have they changed their face ?  
 The fair green fields, and can it still be seen,  
 The white log cottage near the mountain's base,  
 So bright and quiet, so home-like and serene ?  
 Ah, well I question, for, as five years go,  
 How many blessings fall, and how much woe ?

The shore, the fields, the cottage just the same,  
 But how with them whose memory makes them sweet ?  
 Or if I call them, hailing name by name,  
 Will the same lips, the same old shouts, repeat ?

Have the rough years, so big with death and ill,  
 Gone lightly by and left them smiling yet?  
 While black-eyed Jeanne whose tongue was never still,  
 Old wrinkled Picaud, Pierre, and pale Lisette,  
 The homely hearts that never cared to range,  
 While life's wild fields were filled with rush and change.

And where is Jacques, and where is Verginie?  
 I cannot tell, the fields are all a blur,  
 The lowing cows in shapes I scarcely see,  
 Oh, do they wait, and do they call for her?  
 And is she changed, or is her heart still clear  
 As wind or morning, light as river foam?  
 Or have life's changes borne her far from here,  
 And far from rest, and far from help and home?  
 Ah, comrades, soft, and let us rest awhile,  
 For arms grow tired with paddling many a mile.

Oh, does she still remember? is the dream  
 Now dead, or has she found another mate?  
 So near, so dear; and ah, so swift the stream,  
 Even now, perhaps, it were not yet too late.  
 But oh, what matter; for before the night  
 Has reached its middle, we have far to go;  
 Bend to your paddles, comrades; see, the light  
 Ebbs off apace; we must not linger so.  
 Ay, thus it is, heaven gleams and then is gone,  
 Once, twice, it smiles, and still we wander on."

Of all the poems so far written by Canadians, none have evoked more praise from the critical journals than that by Frederick George Scott, describing in powerful verse, as the following extract shows, the agony of the imprisoned Samson:—

"Plunged in night I sit alone,  
 Eyeless on this dungeon stone,  
 Naked, shaggy, and unkempt,  
 Dreaming dreams no soul has dreamt.

Israel's God, come down and see,  
 All my fierce captivity;  
 Let Thy sinews feel my pains,  
 With Thy fingers lift my chains.

Then with thunder loud and wild,  
 Comfort Thou Thy rebel child,  
 And with lightning split in twain,  
 Loveless heart and sightless brain.

Give me splendour in my death,  
 Not this sickening dungeon breath,  
 Creeping down my blood like slime,  
 Till it wastes me in my prime.

Give me back for one blind hour,  
 Half my former rage and power,  
 And some giant crisis send,  
 Meet to prove a hero's end."

Mr. Wilfred Campbell has been called with truth the "Poet of the Lakes," but his best work is yet to be done in poems of human life and passion, as we may well judge from the one, remarkable in its conception and execution, which was printed some time ago in *Harper's Monthly*, and in which the great love of a mother for her child is described as forcing her from her grave to seek it:—

"My babe was asleep on a stranger's arm,  
 O baby, my baby, the grave is so warm,  
 Though dark and so deep, for mother is there ;  
 Oh come with me from the pain and care,  
 Where the pillow is soft and the rest is long,  
 And mother will croon you a slumber song,  
 A slumber song that will charm your eyes  
 To a sleep that never in earth's song lies.  
 The loves of earth your being can spare,  
 But never the grave, for mother is there.  
 I nestled him soft to my throbbing breast,  
 And stole me back to my long long rest.  
 And here I lie with him under the stars,  
 Dead to earth, its peace and its wars ;  
 Dead to its hates, its hopes, and its harms,  
 So long as he cradles up soft in my arms ;

And heaven may open its shimmering doors,  
And saints make music on pearly floors,

And hell may yawn to its infinite sea,  
But they never can take my baby from me ;

For so much a part of my soul he hath grown,  
That God doth know of it high on His throne.

And here I lie with him under the flowers,  
That sun-winds rock through the billowy hours,

With the night airs that steal from the murmuring sea,  
Bringing sweet peace to my baby and me."

The life of the French-Canadian habitants has been admirably described in verse by Dr. Drummond, who has always lived among that class of the Canadian people, and been a close observer of their national and personal characteristics. He is the only writer who has succeeded in giving a striking and truthful portraiture of life in the cabin, in the "shanty" (*chantier*), or on the river, where the French habitant, forester, and canoe-man can be best seen to advantage. The poet makes each character tell his story in the broken and peculiar English of the French settlements, and in doing so never becomes vulgar or tiresome, but is always spirited and true to nature. His poems are specially intended for recitation by one who knows the people like the author, and can give the words their proper emphasis and swing. Here is a tribute from a humble Canadian, "Canayen" as he calls himself, to Albani, who is a native of the French-Canadian town of Chambly:—

"Dat song I will never forget me, 'twas of de little bird,  
W'en he's fly from its nes' on de tree-top fore res' of de worl' get  
stirred.

Ma-dam she was tole us about it, den start off so quiet an' low,  
An' sing lak' de bird on de morning, de poor leetle small oiseau.

I 'member wan tam' I be sleepin', joos' onder some beeg pine tree,  
An' song of de robin wak' me, but robin he don't see me.



Der'es not'ing for scarin' dat bird dere, he's feel all alone on de worl',

Wall, Ma-dam she mus lissen lak' dat too, w'en she was de Chambly Girl.

Cos how could she sing dat nice chanson, de sam' as if de bird I was hear,

Till I see it de maple an' pine tree, an' Richelieu ronnin' near.

Again I'm de little feller, lak' young colt upon de spring,

Dat's jus on de way I was feel me, w'en Madam All-banee is sing.

An' after de song it is finish, an' croud is mak' noise wit' its han',

I s'pose dey be t'inkin' I'm crazy, dat maybe I don't understan'.

Cos I'm set on de chair very quiet, mesef and poor Jeremie,

An I see dat his eye it was cry too, jus sam' way it go wit' me.

Dere's rosebush outside on our garden, every spring it has got noo nes',

But only wan blue-bird is build dere, I nos her from all de res'.

An' no matter de far she be flyin' away on de winter tam',

Back to her own little rosebush, she's comin' dere jus de sam'.

We'er not be beeg plas on our Canton, mebbe cole on de winter tam' too,

But de heart's 'Canayen' on our body, an' dat's warm enough for true.

An' wan All-ba-nee was got lonesome, for travel al' roun' de worl',

I hope she'll come home lak' de blue-bird, an' again be the Chambly Girl."

But if Canada can point to some creditable achievement of recent years in history, poetry, and essay writing—for I think if one looks from time to time at the leading magazines and reviews of the two continents, he will find that Canada is fairly well represented in their pages—there is one respect in which Canadians had never won any marked success until Mr. Gilbert Parker appeared, and that is in the novel of romance. "Wacousta, or the Prophecy; a Tale of the Canadas," was written sixty years ago by Major John Richardson, a native Canadian; but it was at the best a spirited imitation of Cooper, and has not retained the interest it attracted at a time

when the American novelist had created a taste for exaggerated pictures of Indian life and forest scenery. Of course attempts have been made time and again by other English Canadians to describe episodes of our history, and portray some of our national and social characteristics, but with the single exception of "The Golden Dog," written a few years ago by Mr. William Kirby of Niagara, and still reprinted from time to time—an evidence of intrinsic merit—I cannot point to one which shows much imaginative or literary skill. Even Mr. Kirby's single romance, which recalls the closing days of the French régime—the days of the infamous Intendant Bigot, who fattened on Canadian misery—does not show the finished art of the skilled novelist, but it has a certain crude vigour of its own which has enabled it to live whilst so many other Canadian books have died. French Canada is even weak in this particular; and this is the more surprising because there is abundance of material for the novelist or the writer of romance in her peculiar society and institutions, and in her historic annals and traditions. But as yet neither a Cooper, nor an Irving, nor a Hawthorne has appeared to delight Canadians in the fruitful field of fiction that their country offers to the pen of imaginative genius. It is true that we have a work by De Gaspé, *Les Anciens Canadiens*, which has been translated by Professor Roberts and one or two others, but it has rather the value of historical annals than the spirit and form of true romance. It is the very poverty of our production, in what ought to be a rich source of our literary inspiration, French-Canadian life and history, that has given currency to a work whose signal merit is its simplicity of style and adherence to historical fact. As Parkman many years ago first commenced to illumine the too often dull pages of Canadian history, so other American writers have also ventured in the

still fresh field of literary effort that romance offers to the industrious, inventive brain. In the romance of "Dollard, Tonty, and the Lady of Fort St. John," Mrs. Mary Hartwell Catherwood has recalled most interesting episodes of our past annals with admirable literary taste, and a deep enthusiasm for Canadian history in its romantic and picturesque aspects. It must not be imagined, however, from our failure for so many years to cultivate successfully the same popular branch of letters, that Canadians are wanting in the inventive and imaginative faculty. The romances of Mr. M'Lelan, Mr. Lighthall, Mr. Marquis, and Mrs. Harrison are, like Mr. Parker's books, evidence of our intellectual development in this respect.

Mr. Gilbert Parker, now a resident in London, but a Canadian by birth, education, and sympathies, is animated by a laudable ambition of giving form and vitality to the abundant materials that exist in the Dominion, among the inhabitants on the old *seigneuries* of the French Province, in that historic past of which the ruins still remain in Montreal and Quebec; in the North-West, with its quarrels of adventurers, in the fur-trade, and in the many other sources of inspiration that exist in this country for the true story-teller who can invent a plot and give his creations a touch of reality, and not that doll-like, sawdust appearance that the vapid characters of some Canadian stories assume from the very poverty of the imagination that has originated them.

Mr. Parker's book, "The Seats of the Mighty," the scenes of which are laid also in that old city whose rocks recall such a deeply interesting past, shows that he possesses that inventive faculty, that power to construct and carry out a skilful plot, that deep insight into human motives, that power to conceive original characters—such as Doltaire, a strange compound of cynic, conspirator, philosopher, "master-

devil"—which are necessary to the author of romance if his work is ever to have more than an evanescent fame. While "The Seats of the Mighty" is probably the more popular novel, his previous story, "When Valmond came to Pontiac," is even more artistic in its treatment of a difficult subject, and in one respect more original in its conception. His sketches of the conditions of life in a little French-Canadian community, where mystery and doubt surround a stranger who claims to be a son of the great Napoleon, and who awakens the simple, credulous people from their normal sluggishness into mental activity and a positive whirl of excitement, are worked out with a rare fertility of invention and delicacy of touch.

Take, for instance, this simple yet truthful description of an old French-Canadian hamlet:—

"This all happened on a Tuesday, and on Wednesday, and for several days, Valmond went about making friends. It was easy to do this, for his pockets were always full of pennies and silver pieces, and he gave them liberally to the children and to the poor, though, indeed, there were few suffering poor in Pontiac. All had food enough to keep them from misery, though often it got no further than sour milk and bread, with a dash of sugar in it on Sundays. As for homes, every man and woman had a house of a kind, with its low, projecting roof and dormer windows, according to the ability and prosperity of the owner. These homes were whitewashed or painted white, and had double glass in winter, according to the same measure. There was no question of warmth, for in snow-time every house was banked up with earth above the foundations; the cracks and intersections of windows and doors were filled with cloth from the village looms, and wood was for the chopping far and near. Within these air-tight cubes the simple folk baked, and were happy, content if now and then the housewife opened



the one pane of glass, which hung on a hinge, or the slit in the sash, to let in the cold air. The occasional opening of the outer door to admit some one, as a rule, sufficed, for out rushed the hot blast and in came the dry, frosty air to brace to their tasks the story-teller and singer.

“In summer the little fields were broken with wooden ploughs, and there was a limb of a tree for a harrow, the sickle and scythe and flail to do their office in due course; and if the man were well-to-do, he swung the cradle in his rye and wheat, rejoicing in the sweep of the knife and the fulness of the swathe. Then, too, there was the driving of the rivers, when the young men ran the logs from the backwoods to the great mills near and far—red-shirted, sashed, knee-booted, with rings in their ears, and wide hats on their heads, and a song in their mouths, breaking a jam, or steering a crib or raft down the rapids. And the voyageur also, who brought furs out of the north down the great lakes, came home again to Pontiac, singing in his patois:—

‘*Nous avons passé le bois  
Nous sommes à la rive.*’

Or, as he went forth:—

‘*Le dieu du jour s’avance ;  
Amis, les vents sont doux ;  
Bercés par l’espérance,  
Partons, embarquons-nous  
A-a-a-a-a-a.*’

And, as we know, it was summer when Valmond came to Pontiac. The river drivers were just beginning to return, and by-and-by the flax-swingeing would commence in the little secluded valley by the river, and one would see the bright sickle flashing across the gold and green area, and all the pleasant furniture of

summer set forth in pride by the Mother of the House whom we call Nature."

Canada has only one "Sam Slick," that strong original character in American humour, which was conceived sixty years ago by a Nova Scotian judge who wrote also other works of merit, though the Clockmaker's "Sayings and Doings" are now alone remembered. That imagination and humour have still some existence in the Canadian mind—though one sees little of those qualities in the press or in the public speeches, or in Parliamentary debates—we can well believe when we read "The Dodge Club Abroad"—which first appeared in *Harper's Monthly*—by Professor De Mille, who was cut off in the prime of his intellectual strength, or "A Social Departure," by Sara Jeannette Duncan (Mrs. Coates), who, as a sequence of a trip around the world, has given us not a dry book of travels but a story with touches of genial humour and bright descriptions of life and nature, and who has followed up that excellent literary effort by promising sketches of East Indian life. A story which attracted some attention not long since for originality of conception, and ran through several editions, "Beggars All," is written by a Miss L. Dougall, a member of a Montreal family, originally hailing from Paisley, and although this book does not deal with incidents of Canadian life, it illustrates that fertility of invention which is latent among our people and only requires a favourable opportunity to develop itself. The best literature of this kind is like that of France, which has the most intimate correspondence with the social life and development of the people of the country. "The excellence of a romance," writes Chevalier Bunsen in his critical preface to Gustav Freytag's "Debit and Credit," "like that of an epic or a drama, lies in the apprehension and truthful exhibition of the course of human things . . . a faithful

mirror of the present." With us all efforts in this direction have been most commonplace—hardly above the average of "Social Notes" in the columns of newspapers.

I think, on the whole, there have been enough good poems, histories, and essays written and published in Canada for the last four or five decades to prove that there has been a steady intellectual growth on the part of our people, and that it has kept pace at all events with the mental growth in the pulpit, or in the legislative halls, where of late years a keen practical debating style has taken place of the more rhetorical and studied oratory of old times. I believe the intellectual faculties of Canadians only require larger opportunities for their exercise to bring forth a rich fruition. I believe the progress in the years to come will be far greater than that we have yet shown, and that necessarily so, with the wider distribution of wealth, the dissemination of a higher culture, and a greater confidence in our own mental strength, and in the resources that this country offers to pen and pencil.

I must frankly admit that there is far too much hasty and slovenly work done in Canadian literature. The literary canon which a writer should have ever in his mind has been stated by no less an authority than Sainte-Beuve: "Devoted to my profession as a critic, I have tried to be more and more a good and if possible an able workman." A good style means artistic workmanship. It is too soon for us in this country to look for a Matthew Arnold or a Sainte-Beuve—such great critics are generally the results and not the forerunners of a great literature; but at least if we could have in the present state of our intellectual development, a criticism in the press which would be intelligent, truthful, and just, the essential characteristics of the two authors I have named, the

effect would be probably in the direction of encouraging promising writers, and weeding out some literary dabblers. "What I have wished," said the French critic, "is to say not a word more than I thought, to stop even a little short of what I believed in certain cases, in order that my words might acquire more weight as historical testimony."

We all know that the literary temperament is naturally sensitive to anything like indifference, and is too apt, perhaps, to exaggerate the importance of its calling in the prosaic world in which it is exercised. The pecuniary rewards are so few, relatively, in this country, that the man of imaginative mind—the purely literary worker—naturally thinks that he can at least ask for generous appreciation. No doubt he thinks, to quote a passage from a clever Australian novel, "The Australian Girl," "Genius has never been truly acclimatised by the world. The Philistines always long to put out the eyes of poets and make them grind corn in Gaza." But it is well always to remember that a great deal of rough work has to be done in a country like Canada before its Augustan age can come. No doubt literary stimulus must be more or less wanting in a colony where there is too obviously, at times, an absence of self-confidence in ourselves and in our institutions, arising from that sense of dependency and habit of imitation and borrowing from others that is a necessity of a colonial condition. The tendency of the absence of sufficient self-assertion is to cramp intellectual exertion and make us believe that success in literature can only be achieved in the old countries of Europe.

A spirit of all-surrounding materialism must always exercise a certain sinister influence in this way—an influence largely exerted in Ontario—but despite all this we see that even among our neighbours it has not prevented the growth of a literary class famous for its



intellectual successes in varied fields of literature. It is for Canadian writers to have always before them a high ideal, and to remember that literature does its best duty, to quote the eloquent words of Ruskin, "in raising our fancy to the height of what may be noble, honest, and felicitous in actual life; in giving us, though we may be ourselves poor and unknown, the companionship of the wisest spirits of every age and country, and in aiding the communication of clear thoughts and faithful purposes among distant nations."

The development of culture of a high grade in a relatively new country like this, with so many urgent material needs, must largely depend on the educational machinery of the country. Chiefly, if not entirely, owing to the expansion of our common school system—good in Ontario and Nova Scotia, but defective in Quebec—and the influence of our universities and colleges, the average intelligence of the people of this country is much higher than it was a very few years ago; but no doubt it is with us as with our neighbours, to quote the words of an eminent public speaker whose brilliancy and humour sometimes lead one to forget his higher criticism—I refer to Dr. Chauncey Depew—"speed is the virtue and vice of our generation. We demand that morning glories and century plants shall submit to the same conditions and flower with equal frequency." Even some of our universities, from which we naturally expect so much, seem disposed from time to time to lower their standard and yield too readily to the demand for purely practical education, when, after all, the great reason of all education is to draw forth the best qualities of the young man, elevate his intelligence, and stimulate his highest intellectual forces.

The animating principle with the majority of people is to make a young man a doctor, a lawyer, an engineer,

or teach him some other vocation as soon as possible, and the tendency is to consider any education that does not immediately effect this result superfluous. Whilst every institution of learning must necessarily yield something to this pervading spirit of immediate utility, it would be a mistake to sacrifice all the methods and traditions of the past, when sound scholars at least were made, and the world had so many men famous in learning, in poetry, in romance, and in history. For one I range myself among those who, like James Russell Lowell and Matthew Arnold, still consider the conscientious and intelligent study of the ancient classics—the “humanities” as they are called—as best adapted to create cultured men and women, and as the noblest basis on which to build up even a practical education with which to earn bread and capture the world.

We are, as respects the higher education of this country, in that very period which Arnold saw ahead for America—a period of unsettlement and confusion and false tendency—a tendency to crowd into education too many matters; and it is for this reason I venture to hope that letters will not be allowed to yield entirely to the necessity for practical science, the importance of which I fully admit, while deprecating its being made the dominant principle in our universities. If we are to come down to the lower grades of our educational system, I might also doubt whether, despite all its decided advantages for the masses, its admirable machinery and apparatus, its comfortable school-houses, its varied systematic studies from form to form and year to year, its well-managed model and normal schools, its excellent teachers, there are not also signs of superficiality. The tendency of the age is to become rich fast, to get as much knowledge as possible within a short time, and the consequence of this is to spread far too much knowledge over a limited

ground—to give a child too many subjects, and to teach him a little of everything. These are the days of many cyclopædias, historical, scientific digests, reviews of reviews, French in a few lessons, and interest tables. All is digested and made easy to the student, consequently not a little of the production of our schools, and some of our colleges, may be compared to a veneer of knowledge, which easily wears off in the activity of life and leaves the roughness of the original and cheaper material very perceptible. One may well believe that the largely mechanical system and materialistic tendency of our education have some effect in checking the development of a really original and imaginative literature among us. Much of our daily literature—indeed the chief literary aliment of large classes of our best population—is the newspaper press, which illustrates in many ways the haste and pressure of this life of ours in a country of practical needs like Canada. Canadian journals, however, have not yet descended to those depths of degraded sensationalism for which some New York papers have become so notorious.

In the course of a few decades Canada will probably have determined her position among the communities of the world, and, for one, I have no doubt the results will be far more gratifying to our national pride than the results of even the past thirty years, during which we have been laying broad and deep the foundations of our present system of government. We have reason to believe that the material success of the confederation will be fully equalled by the intellectual efforts of a people who have sprung from nations whose not least enduring fame has been the fact that they have given to the world of letters so many famous names that represent the best literary genius of the English and French races. All the evidence before us now goes to prove that the French language will continue into an

indefinite future to be the language of a large and influential section of the population of Canada, and that it must consequently exercise a decided influence on the culture and intellect of the Dominion. It has been within the last four decades that the best intellectual work, both in literature and statesmanship, has been produced both in French and English Canada, and the signs of intellectual activity in the same direction do not lessen with the expansion of the Dominion. In all probability the two nationalities will remain side by side for an unknown period, to illustrate on the northern half of the Continent of America the culture and genius of the two strongest and brightest powers of civilisation. As both of these nationalities have vied with each other in the past to build up this confederation on a large and generous basis of national strength and greatness, and have risen, time and again, superior to those racial antagonisms created by differences of opinion at great crises of our history—antagonisms happily dispelled by the common sense, reason, and patriotism of men of both races—so we should in the future hope for that friendly rivalry on the part of the best minds among French and English Canadians which will best stimulate the genius of their people in art, history, poetry, and romance. In the meantime, while the confederation is fighting its way out of its political difficulties, and resolving wealth and refinement from the original and rugged elements of a new country, it is for the respective nationalities not to stand aloof from one another, but to unite in every way possible for common intellectual improvement, and give sympathetic encouragement to the study of the two languages, and to the mental efforts of each other. It was on this enlightened principle of sympathetic interest that the Royal Society was founded by the Marquis of Lorne, and on which alone it can expect to obtain any permanent measure of success. If the



English and French always endeavour to meet each other on this friendly basis in all the communities where they live side by side, as well as on all occasions that demand common thought and action, and cultivate that social and intellectual intercourse which may, at all events, weld them both as one in spirit and aspiration, however different they may continue in language and temperament, many prejudices must be removed, social life must gain in charm, and intellect must be developed by finding strength where it is weak, and grace where it is needed, in the mental efforts of the two races. If, in addition to this widening of the sympathies of our two national elements, we can see in the Dominion generally less of that provincialism which means a narrowness of mental vision on the part of our literary aspirants, and prevents Canadian authors reaching a larger audience in other countries, then we shall rise superior to those weaknesses of our intellectual character which now impede our mental development, and shall be able to give larger scope to whatever original and imaginative genius may exist among our people.

# NEWFOUNDLAND

By T. B. BROWNING, M.A.

(*Of the Canadian Bar*)

## I

NEWFOUNDLAND is an island situate on the north-east coast of the American Continent, between the degrees of latitude 46 and 52, and those of longitude 53 and 60 west of Greenwich. Her area is 42,000 square miles in round numbers. She is therefore somewhat smaller than England, somewhat larger than Ireland.

But though an island, Newfoundland is essentially one with her continent. The geological formation which gives the region of Labrador and Northern Quebec a distinct place in scientific classification stretches over a considerable portion of North-West Newfoundland. A narrow chasm separates the two, now known as the Strait of Belle Isle, somewhat abrupt in form and only nine miles in width. On the other hand, the great mass of the island is, in its main features, identical with that part of North America which is confined between the Alleghanies and the sea, and comprehends New England, with the Canadian provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. Here the line of separation is forty-six miles wide; a gap which is in itself substantial, but is almost negligible when regarded in connection with the continent. Take a point in the United States as Cape Hatteras, or the old Spanish settlement of Saint Augustine's,

and outline the Atlantic coast proceeding northwards to Cape Race, the easternmost point of Newfoundland. You pass through  $23^{\circ}$  of latitude and through  $30^{\circ}$  of longitude, but find, judging by the contour of Europe or Asia, a very even coast-line and no indentations or breaks that a continent might not well have. Now, pursue your course from Cape Race past Newfoundland, past Labrador, "indefinitely northwards," to quote the Treaty of 1818, to Lancaster Sound. Again, you meet a comparatively even coast of almost equal extent with the former as measured by degrees of latitude. It is of equal extent also if measured by degrees of longitude, but these degrees are measured in a different direction. As you approached Cape Race from St. Augustine's you passed east  $30^{\circ}$ ; to get to Lancaster Sound from Cape Race, you must pass through  $30^{\circ}$  west. North America, therefore, forms a very considerable angle or rather triangle jutting towards Europe, and Cape Race is at the apex of that triangle. St. John's, the capital of the colony, not far from that headland, is 1700 miles distant from Liverpool, while the distance from Liverpool to New York is 3200 miles.

The geographical position of the island, combined with the figuration of the continent, is significant. In the rough and hurried times of the sixteenth century, explorers had much to do to fix the general and more marked features of the New World without delineating bays, straits, gulfs, and estuaries. What was more natural in these circumstances than that they should figure Newfoundland as a vast peninsula stretching eastwards, its extreme point at Cape Race? If we take Juan de la Cosa's chart (1500) to indicate Cabot's conception of the land he found, it must have appeared to him a continent or part of a continent. For about forty years after her discovery, Newfoundland is represented in the charts and maps that have

come down to us as part and parcel of North America, while her name, or some one of her many names, serves to designate also what we now know as Canada and New England.

Within the last few years, as you know, the art and science of navigation have so developed that transatlantic liners make a straight course to Boston and New York. But thirty years ago it was otherwise. Then the main objective point of travel and transport by sail and steam in the North Atlantic was Cape Race. It is so still for sailing craft of all sizes, and it had been for near four centuries the half-way house for exploration as well as business. Is, then, the relative importance of Cape Race likely to be regained? Probably not. But the legislature of the island sees a new prospect. It sees begun a movement toward rapid transit that is drawing together the remotest possessions of the Crown and bids fair to transform the commerce of the world. As trade seeks the shortest route by land and sea, and as that route from the Old World to the New lies across Newfoundland, the island railway is brought to the nearest point of continental communication that international complications will permit. By the use of fast services on land and sea, the calculation is that sixty to seventy hours will be saved both ways in the carriage of passengers, mails, and goods between Liverpool and New York, with corresponding advantages to other centres in England, the United States, and Canada. The sea-voyage across the Atlantic will then be reduced to three days for steamers like the *Lucania* or *Oceanic*—"a consummation devoutly to be wished." The credit of originating and completing the railway belongs to the ex-premier, Sir William Whiteway.

Let us glance a moment at the northern arm of the continental angle. It stretches over Newfoundland, over Labrador, which is a dependency of the



island much frequented in late years, and over an undefined and unorganised territory, whose capabilities are unknown, to Lancaster Sound, a distance of fifteen hundred miles or more. It looks towards Greenland, Iceland, the British Islands, the northern part of Europe, and presents to them an almost unbroken front. Now, what inherent improbability is there that the "rovers of the North," substantially the same race that first devastated Europe and then took possession of it, made an excursion to the west, or rather an incursion, in the eleventh or twelfth centuries? I see none; for, within a century or two of that time, the English drove a thriving trade with Iceland, and were wont to fish and fight with great freedom in those northern regions. The authority of the Icelandic Sagas is now well established, and their description of the western lands is circumstantial and minute. The fact that no memorials of their stay have been discovered either in Newfoundland or farther south, need not be a cause of wonder; for, after thirty years, all traces of Raleigh's settlement in Virginia (1585) were completely obliterated. At the same time, if Eric and his men ever saw any portion of North America, that portion must have been situate somewhere along the northern arm of the salient angle that runs from Cape Race, that is, within the island of Newfoundland or Labrador. Sailing westwards from Iceland or Greenland he could not have avoided it.

The same remark applies to the expedition, and by no means detracts from the honour, of John Cabot. Our information regarding him, as his maps and papers are not recoverable, may be scanty, but is sufficient to show his authorisation and reward by Henry VII., his departure on his first voyage, his discovery and return, together with his second venture. We also know something of the course he steered in 1497, viz., starting from Bristol, he rounded the south of Ireland,

made towards the north, then turned his prow westward. In these circumstances, what probable landfall could he have had but on that portion of the Newfoundland territories which lies north of Cape Race? His actual landing may, indeed, have been elsewhere; but, as you see, could scarcely have been elsewhere except by extraordinary fortune, of which there is no evidence. We have consequently, in the literature of the nation, an almost unbroken testimony reaching back to the days of Henry VII., that as the island was first discovered for the modern world by his expedition that returned on the 6th of August 1497, so the first point of land he touched in the expedition was situate on this east coast. There is a variance, indeed, and the variance is peculiar. The son, Sebastian, usurped the credit due to the father, John Cabot, and enjoyed high reputation and substantial emolument in consequence. Thanks to Mr. Harris, we now know the actual state of facts: that Sebastian was very much of an adventurer or charlatan, though in a large way; that he was inexperienced in nautical affairs; and that he had never been on the North American coast, "though he makes report," to quote the language addressed to Henry VIII. by the Twelve Livery Companies of London in 1521, "of many things he heard his father and other men speak of in times past."

I have said there is an unbroken record that Cabot's landfall in 1497 was north of Cape Race. Of late years a second claimant has appeared in the field—Cape Breton—and her pretensions have been maintained by Mr. S. E. Dawson with a dialectic skill that does honour to his ingenuity and research. The claim is associated historically with a map or chart, dated 1544, that is ascribed to Sebastian Cabot. It marks Cape North in Cape Breton Island with the words *prima tierra vista* (land first seen). I pass by the nautical difficulty how any one sailing a general course

westward from Ireland, without extraordinary fortune, and without previous knowledge of "the lie of the land," could have rounded Cape Race, passed by St. Mary's and the peninsula of Burin so as to make his first land-view in any portion of Cape Breton. But has the map any authority? The authority of a man who, to suit his special purpose for the time being, sets the reputed place of his birth at different times in places so far apart as Bristol, Venice, and Genoa, may not be deemed of great weight; but has this map the authority even of Sebastian Cabot? The declaration of the Livery Companies may be taken as conclusive that he had no personal knowledge of his father's landfall, and nothing has been discovered to make him responsible either for the map itself or any one of the many curious legends that are written upon it. Again, it is evidently a compilation of late date, for it adopts in block the place-designations, not of Cabot as De la Cosa preserves or translates them, but of Cartier and his immediate successors. Further, had Cape North been the real first-view, the Gulf of St. Lawrence would have been known before 1536, and the broad entrance by Cape Ray would have been used then as now, in preference to the narrow strait of Belle Isle. As we shall see, the fact was otherwise. But the decisive blow to the map, the legends, and the theories associated with them, is furnished by Mr. Dawson himself, who says, speaking after careful examination, that Cape North is an impossible landfall; for those who discovered it must previously have sighted several other headlands even in Cape Breton.

Having thus destroyed the original of Cape Breton's claim, Mr. Dawson proceeds to construct for her one that shall be better founded. For this purpose he appeals principally to the chart of Juan de la Cosa and to scientific reasons. Cosa's chart is the oldest that we have of North America, and is supposed

to have been drawn from information supplied by Cabot or from information concerning his discoveries that had percolated to Puerto de Santa Maria, near Cadiz, during or before the year 1500. It has a strip of coast, not drawn to indicated scale but seemingly of considerable extent, that runs almost due east and west and is marked at intervals by five English flags. Underneath the western or fifth flag, and extending to middle distance between the fourth and third are the words, "Mar descubierto por Ingleses" (sea discovered by Englishmen). Between the other banners is a number of names for which no satisfactory or generally acceptable explanation has yet been found. But at the near or east end, as it were at the corner of the continent, one sees "Cavo de Inglaterra" (Cape of England), which the learned in these questions variously interpret as Cape Race (Kohl), a headland near Belle Isle (Humboldt), and Cape Chudleigh at the entrance to Hudson's Bay (Harrisse). This cape, whatever it be, is also said to have been Cabot's landfall in 1497, the spot where he raised the standard of England and of Venice to assert a national right on behalf of his adopted country. Certain collateral facts are found to favour each location with almost equal ease. Mr. Dawson passes these suppositions by, as well he may, but finds, near the third flag and at the end of the special nomenclature of the coast, a promontory marked "Cavo Descubierto" or Discovered Cape. This he interprets to be cape first discovered, and locates it not at Cape North, the impossible first-view of the planisphere of 1544, but at a neighbouring headland that accords somewhat more closely with the vague and meagre contemporary accounts of Cabot's voyage that have come down to us, and to which advocates of all theories appeal with equal confidence. An almost fatal objection to his suggestion is that the Island of



St. John, seen on the same day as the first land and to the west of it, cannot be Scatari Island, as he supposes, for that island lies to the east of the supposed landfall. But without entering into a controversy on the question, allow me to suggest that contemporary accounts, the configuration of Cosa's map, the use of the past participle—Discovered Cape instead of such an expression as Cape of Discovery—are satisfied by the supposition that "Cavo Descubierto" marks the limit, not the beginning of Cabot's explorations. One might refine on the idea with some show of evidence and say that while "Cavo Descubierto" was indeed the farthest bound of the expedition of 1497, the legend, "Mar Descubierto por Ingleses," which stretches farther west, indicates the additional searches which we know to have been made in the following year.

But the building of hypotheses on shifting sands is unsatisfactory labour. Mr. Dawson appeals to science, and was the first to point out what an influence the variation of the compass must or may have had on the actual course steered by John Cabot west of the Azores. I say "may," for, like other pioneers, he may have experienced adverse winds and not have kept a course due west. Arguing by analogy from the experience of Columbus, Mr. Dawson concludes for a landfall in Cape Breton. From the same data, Mr. HARRISSE shows that, whatever was the actual deviation from this cause, it could not have brought Cabot so far south as Mr. Dawson contends, but would have landed him rather in the region of White Bay in Northern Newfoundland. Sir Clements MARKHAM reviews the whole controversy before the Geographical Society in 1897, the fourth centenary of the event, allows for the southing from magnetic causes, and says: "The landfall . . . in these circumstances, would be Cape Bonavista on the east coast of Newfoundland." He adds further: "Taking SONCINO's account of the

voyage by itself" (Soneino's account is the most specific we have), "there can be no question that Bonavista Bay, on the east coast of Newfoundland, was the landfall."

I take this statement of Admiral Markham to be decisive, not merely because of his professional experience, his high reputation in the literary world in questions of this kind, or his position as head of the Geographical Society, but also because, in his earlier works, he had advocated the Cape Breton hypothesis, following the planisphere of 1544. Further examination has shown that representation to be untenable, and has restored to its original place the traditional first view current in Newfoundland, namely, Cape Bonavista. You may ask, How can there be a tradition on such a point in Newfoundland? There is no doubt about the fact of the now current tradition. It reaches back, at least, to Mason's map of 1616. So far we are on historical ground. The further argument relies on probability. Is it likely that Mason, a captain in the Royal Navy, of his own mere motion, inscribed on a chart intended for presentation to King James and his council, these words opposite the headland, *Bona Vista a Cabotto primum reperta* (Bona Vista first found by Cabot)? True, he may have copied it from some prior map now lost. On the other hand, he was resident and the head of Guy's Colony, and may have set it down as a fact learned from a tradition then current as it now is. At his time, Newfoundland was in a condition not merely to have traditions but customs. Anthony Parkhurst, writing to Hakluyt on the 13th of November 1578—thirty-eight years before Mason's day—mentions one of the less honourable of these customs as follows: ". . . The Englishmen . . . commonly are lords of the harbors where they fish, and do use all strangers' help in fishing if need require, according to an old custome of the countrey, which thing

they do willingly, so that you take nothing from them more than a boat or twain of salte, in respect of your protection of them against rovers or other violent intruders, who do often put them from good harbor." The said Anthony had been on the coast of Newfoundland four years previous to writing the above, and knew all about the traditional blackmail. He tells Hakluyt that he had been deceived and put to the loss of above £600 "by the vile Portugals, descending of the Jewes and Judas kinde . . ." who "falsifying their faith and promise, disappointed me of the salte they should have brought me in part of recompense of my good service in defending them two years against French rovers, that had spoiled them if I had not defended them." He then goes on to inquire whether Her Majesty's Council would not make demand for payment from the King of Portugal, or "grant me leave to stay here so much of their goods as they have damnified me; or else that I may take of them in Newfoundland as much fish as would be worth 600 li., or as much as the salte might have been." The old custom, inuring to the profit of the English, did not die quickly. It transformed itself into a national claim, was enforced by executive order, was admitted into treaty and, latterly, its non-observance became one of the proclaimed causes of war against France. A still older custom was that of the fisheries, elaborated by the Star Chamber and afterwards reduced to law by 10 and 11 Will. III.; its customary stage you will see in Whitbourne (1620). But the main ground that supports the traditional landfall of Cabot is this: that from the first discovery, as we shall see, there was continual occupation of, at least, the east coast of Newfoundland and the fisheries by the English. In these circumstances, the memory of the first landing would naturally be handed down from age to age.

## II

Several peoples beside the English have laid claim to Newfoundland. The first in time as well as validity of title are the Portuguese. You know with what perseverance and scientific foresight Prince Henry the Navigator pursued the exploration of Africa, sending forth expeditions year by year till he accomplished his end. Vasco da Gama had just returned with flying colours from Calicut by the Cape of Good Hope, when the brothers Cortereal turned their prows northwards in search of strange lands, and cast anchor in these waters (1501-3). Their initiative, disastrous to themselves, was eagerly followed by their countrymen; for within the first quarter of the sixteenth century we find twenty sail of Portuguese craft in Newfoundland harbours, and before the end of the century the number is said to have reached one hundred. A memorial of their presence lingers in the nomenclature of the island as Cape Race, Spear, Freels, St. Francis, Bonaventure, Conception Bay, Fogo. The last word suggests the family likeness there is between the place-names of Newfoundland and those of the Azores. The Portuguese are supposed likewise to have had settlements or stations for fishing purposes in Cape Breton and near Cape Sable. It is noteworthy that our King, Henry VII., regarded their advent with favour, and gave special directions in his charters to Ward and Elliot (1501-2) that their possessions and persons be respected—one more evidence of the old and firm friendship that has existed between the nations.

The Portuguese charts, beginning with the Canerio and Cantino maps (1502), make evident the extent of their pretensions. They claim the whole region. They call it "the land of Corte-real," or again, "the land of the King of Portugal." They push, into the regions



of Labrador and the utmost north, the English possessions which in Cosa's map extend far to the south, near Florida. They commit another error, which is of historical importance in its cause and influence. They prolong the eastern trend of the continent into what we should call mid-Atlantie, and bring its salient angle, Cape Race, close to the Azores. What was the reason of this, you will say? Probably the satisfaction of a national desire for territory, coupled with an effort to show strict observance of a recent treaty with Spain. You may remember that prior to the great effort of Columbus, a number of bulls had issued from Rome securing to the Portuguese their discoveries by way of the south, and the lordship of the peoples dwelling there. On the return of Columbus, similar bulls were issued to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain for the western lands. One of these separated the western from the southern findings, the Spanish from the Portuguese possessions, by a line circling the world at one hundred leagues west from a specified point. The delimitation did not satisfy the contestants, or at least Portugal, and another was drawn in 1494 by the treaty known as the Treaty of Tordesillas, which removed the encircling line to 370 leagues west from the Azores. Under this arrangement our ancient allies took Brazil, contended for the Moluccas, and laid hold on Newfoundland. Cantino marks the demarcation-line in blue, and sets this island on its east side. Had John Cabot's globe and chart become public, had the English not preserved the secret of his discoveries so strictly, or had they been given to map-making, no great harm might have resulted. But, in the circumstances, the Portuguese representation became classical, was accepted as authoritative throughout Europe, and was much copied. A cloud was thus cast as well over the early history of the island as the range of Cabot's explorations.

But, be the Portuguese claim what it may, it was dropt at a very early date. The actual longitude of the island may have convinced the Court of Lisbon that it had debarred itself from occupation there. It may be that the subsequent union of the crowns merged the Portuguese in the Spanish claim. More probably, Portugal regarded her commercial relations with England and her possessions as satisfying her every requirement—commercial relations that, in this country, have been amicable since Henry IV.'s reign, and, in Newfoundland, have always been, and are now, of a very friendly character.

Spain asserted sovereignty over Newfoundland as well as Virginia. In 1501, King Ferdinand authorised Hojeda, a companion of Columbus, to proceed with twelve ships to the coast, "where it is known the English are discovering" (*que se ha sabido que descubrian los Ingleses*), to set up marks with the arms of Spain to claim possession, and "hinder the discovery of the English in that direction." His successor likewise sent forth expeditions, though with little success, "to penetrate the English secret"—a secret much prized by Spain and much exploited by Sebastian Cabot. She grounded her claim on Pope Alexander's bull, on her western discoveries, the voyages of the Biscayans but not, so far as I can find, on the right of Portugal. The ventures of the Biscayans, according to Navarrete, the chief authority on the point, go no further back than 1523. Now England, from the days of Henry VIII. onwards, constantly and consistently opposed the Spanish title to any part of America north of Florida on the Atlantic; yet, strange to say, while the Portuguese claim over Newfoundland never became the subject of international engagement, that of Spain gets access to treaty at so late a date as the eighteenth century. The 15th Article of Utrecht (1713) preserves "all those privileges" to which the Spaniard "can with

right pretend." Fifty years later by the Treaty of Paris (1763) he formally abandons "all claims and pretensions to the island and its fisheries." The abandonment of sovereignty did not put an end to commercial intercourse. During the times both of peace and war, Newfoundland has had a large trade with Spain. Men now of middle age can recollect when in St. John's harbour there would be at once forty to fifty sail of Spanish ships. The course of traffic may to-day be somewhat changed, the diplomacy of our nearest neighbours may have been very influential in Spanish councils and very disastrous to Newfoundland, yet Spain continues to be one of the principal markets for the island's produce.

I shall speak of the operative claim of France again, but here let me say that she entered in the field of discovery and transatlantic venture at a comparatively late date. Nevertheless, there is evidence that some Breton ships resorted to this coast as early as 1504. During the sixteenth century their expeditions increased at a rapid rate. In 1578, we find Parkhurst give the following estimate of foreign shipping in the island: Spaniards, 100 sail of 5000 tons, besides twenty or thirty that go a whaling; Portuguese, 50 sail of 3000 tons; French, 150 sail of 7000 tons. Of these the Spaniards had the best-appointed craft.

The French seem to have directed their attention chiefly to the south and north coast, but did not take possession of the country in any way. Their first claim of right dates from 1635, when Charles I. gave them leave to fish on payment of five per cent. of their catch. Their first attempt at settlement took place at Placentia in 1662, after the restoration of the Stuarts. We need not inquire into the extent or character of their claim, because in 1713, by the Treaty of Utrecht, they renounced all title to New-

foundland and acknowledged the sole sovereignty of England in and over every part of it. The renunciation and acknowledgment hold good to-day. Had the voice of London, then as now the imperial city, prevailed, there would have been no revival of the Stuart policy; we should have had exclusive use as well as absolute ownership. Had the voice of Chatham, the imperial statesman whom England and the Colonies unite to honour, been listened to fifty years later, the integrity of the island would have been established in 1763. In his own emphatic language, rather than suffer foreign domination in Newfoundland, he would have surrendered the Tower of London.

There is still another national claim, for statesmen have been generous, not to say prodigal, in gifting foreign nations with servitudes over Newfoundland. This one was made as late as 1818, in time of profound peace, for no consideration express or implied, and is to continue "for ever" according to the deed of gift. It grants to the United States the free use of the Newfoundland waters and shore-line on the south from Ramea Island eastward, along the whole west coast and "indefinitely northward" in Labrador. The concession is bad enough on the face of it, but becomes incalculably worse when you consider it in connection with the United States' pretence—a pretence enforced under the Washington Treaty (1871) in the so-called "Fortune Bay Outrage" with the sanction of Mr. Gladstone—that a treaty-provision regarding fisheries overrides all local laws and regulations of whatever kind subsequently made. Newfoundland, I need scarcely add, declines to be bound by the new doctrine.



## III

A glance at the map will tell us much, and may tend to throw light on the question why foreign nations have been so eager to possess some part of the island or claim over it. You will observe that, except for the railway recently built, its interior is almost as blank as Equatorial Africa. It was and remains a paradise for sportsmen of the rod or gun; a paradise where cariboo, grouse, wild geese, curlew abound, and where rivers and lakes—nearly one-third of the whole area—teem with numerous varieties of fish in inexhaustible numbers. On the other hand, her coast-line is deeply indented. North from Cape Race you count Conception, Trinity, Bonavista, Notre Dame, White and Hare Bays; in the south, Trepassey, St. Mary's, Placentia, and Fortune; in the west, St. George's, Bay of Islands, Bonne, and St. John Bays. They are all locally of great extent. Trinity and Placentia Bays almost cut the island in two, leaving on the eastern side the peninsula of Avalon. No wonder that the old cartographers set her down as an archipelago.

Mr. Beckles Willson in his pleasant book on Newfoundland ranks her as the tenth island in the world. In matter of area he is no doubt correct. But if you would define the colony aright, you must measure her shore-line. Her electoral divisions, administrative areas, her roads, and the circuits of her courts have reference, not to counties or townships, quadrangular or customary, but to high-water mark. Her villages and hamlets fringe the foreshore wherever a haven or shelter may be had, and, as you may infer from the crowded nomenclature, nature has been exceedingly bountiful to her as well in the distribution of harbours as in the allotment of shore-line. The fact is indica-

tive at once of her industry and her history. One may not unfairly say, speaking broadly, that her people stand with their backs to the land and set their eyes upon the sea. Outside the chief towns as St. John's with 29,000 inhabitants; Harbour Grace with 6000; Carbonear, Bonavista, Trinity, Placentia, Brigus, with 4000 or more each, there is scarcely a settlement three miles from salt water. The last census (1891) returns her people, including those of Labrador, as in all 210,000, and distributes her bread-winners as follows: Miners, 1258; farmers, 1547; mechanics, 2685; fishermen and persons engaged in fisheries, 54,755. Notwithstanding the severe trials she has experienced during the last seven or eight years, her population is said to have increased, and is now estimated at about 230,000, but the census-proportions may be taken to be representative of to-day. They show Newfoundland to be before all things a fishing country, her main industry to be the fishing industry. She is sometimes called the Norway of the New World.

She depends on the same natural sources of supply as the European kingdom. Strange as it may seem, the cold, not the warm waters of the world afford the more prolific sustenance for fish-life. From Baffin Bay, through Davis Strait, along the front of Labrador, past Newfoundland, there flows slowly but constantly a stream of vast proportions, bearing on its bosom these many-pinnacled and variously turreted masses that cast so deep a spell on those who seek the picturesque—shattered fragments of arctic glaciers—carrying likewise what, at first sight, seems a slimy glamour, but on examination resolves itself into minute living forms, tiny animalculæ, in such multitude as may be indicated but not expressed by the terms myriads upon myriads of millions yearly. These support higher orders of life which in turn become the food of the fish of commerce. The current is sometimes said to divide

at the Belle Isle Strait, one arm encircling the Gulf, enriching the waters of Quebec, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, as well as Western Newfoundland, and coming forth at the southern gap. Recent experiments tend to show that the motion of the waters at Belle Isle is tidal. Be this as it may, the main stream, rounding Cape Race and washing the southern coast, moves southwards till on the outer rim of the Banks of Newfoundland, a couple of degrees south of the island, it dips under the warm waters from the Gulf of Mexico and disappears. The constancy of the flow assures the prosperity of the island.

The Banks of which I speak, so well known as the cradle of fog, though the fog they generate hangs more often and more densely on the Nova Scotia and New Brunswick coasts than on those of Newfoundland, are submarine plateaus, which lie at the depth of 50 to 100 fathoms, and subtend about 60,000 square miles of the North Atlantic. They were once supposed to be formed by iceberg deposits, but are now known to be composed mainly of sand and shell forms, which may show forth hereafter as the chalk cliffs of Kent. They are a new Albion in the process of making, and mark the southern limit of the Newfoundland fishery.

This fishery, as it is known to history, is one from Labrador to the Banks, and is a cod-fishery. It was prosecuted almost from the date of Cabot's discovery by the English, Portuguese, Bretons, and Biscayans; it has been the subject-matter of many international negotiations during the past three centuries; now and then, it has been the cause of war among modern nations. Its total yield to all participants in these days—that is, to Newfoundland, France, the United States, and Canada—is 3,750,000 quintals or hundred-weights yearly. If we take as an average 40 fish to the cwt., the total annual yield will be 148,000,000

cod-fish. With this you may compare Norway's average return per year, 50,000,000. Her average annual export during the last ten years does not exceed 756,000 cwt., that of Newfoundland alone for the same term is 1,295,000 cwt. If, then, you call Newfoundland the American Norway, you should add a rider that she is, or has the possibilities of becoming, and requires nothing but good government to become, a much greater Norway.

I have said that Cape Race is the apex of the continental triangle; it is the apex likewise of the insular triangle, which is right angled. Its hypotenuse, or east and north sides, along which the Arctic current glides, stretches to the Strait of Belle Isle. Of this passage Newfoundland makes comparatively little use. Her Labrador fishing fleet, estimated at 1000 craft of all sizes, passes it by, and seeks the richer grounds of the far north. Canada has of late years lighted it at considerable cost, and has this year completed a large lighthouse with the best modern appliances, so that in midsummer both steamers and sailing-vessels may use it as the shortest route from Liverpool to Montreal. It is actually the older passage, and was known to the English and Bretons before the days of Cartier. In 1534 he passed north from his landfall at Bonavista and entered the Strait, holding on his right hand that land which he says "God gave Cain," and to which the Portuguese would limit the English discoveries.

The south coast runs from Cape Race west to Cape Ray, where lies the broader channel leading to the St. Lawrence and the Gulf. That it was not first but second in the order of discovery is plain from Cartier's narrative. Turning southwards from Belle Isle he skirted the west coast of the island, touched at the Magdalens, made a periplus of the Gulf, and proceeded to France by the route he had come. In



describing his voyage he says there should be some passage at the south near Cape Ray, and adds: "If it were so, it would be a great shortening as well of the time as of the way, if any perfection could be found in it." "Perfection" was found in his second voyage; for, having wintered at the St. Charles under the shelter of Cape Diamond and descended the great river of Canada, he directed his course towards Newfoundland, then to the Magdalens, and turning eastwards found the strait he had divined. The date, 1536, is important in Newfoundland history, for at this time was her insularity first established. That she afterwards blossomed into an archipelago is not the fault of Cartier.

It has been held that the Gulf was known before Cartier's explorations and, in proof of the assertion, a map by Gaspar de Viegas, dated 1534, is produced. I have not seen the original, which is in Paris, but have examined a reproduction published in 1893. It shows a substantial bay between Burin Peninsula and Cape Breton, as do all maps, at least from 1508 till to-day. That fact could be and was, no doubt, learned from continental coasting. Now De Viegas gives no indication of the Magdalen Islands. Without knowing these, what could he have known of the Gulf? Again, his bay is by no means deep and closes in a semicircular form, round-headed towards the west. Is this even an approximate representation of the Canadian Mediterranean? May we not infer from its semicircular ending that De Viegas had no certain data to proceed upon in depicting this part of North America? But the chief point is this: that, in his map, Newfoundland through her main breadth is a prolongation of the continent. The conclusion is irresistible that till 1536, thirty-nine years after Cabot's first venture, there was no knowledge of a strait at Cape Ray leading to a vast expanse of a land-locked water, whatever conception

there may have been of a bay between Burin and Cape Breton narrowing westwards.

Until about twelve years ago this opening remained nameless. It was then called Cabot Strait, on the suggestion of Admiral Wharton. We all reverence the feeling that prompted the Admiral, and must admit that Cabot and Columbus have been ungratefully ignored in the nomenclature of the continent. At the same time, the bestowal of Cabot's name on this precise locality is unfortunate, for two reasons: it sprang from the now abandoned planisphere of 1544, which the Admiral accepted in all good faith; it tends to pre-judge the controversy as to the English landfall of 1497. On the other hand, had Cartier's name been chosen, we should have been on historical ground; a well-merited tribute would have been paid to a great explorer; an important date as well as exploit in the annals of North America would have been popularised.

#### IV

What we may call the base of the island-triangle stretches from Cape Ray to Cape Bauld, and almost blocks the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Its extremities, as you see, command the highways of Canadian trade, and are of special interest in a strategical point of view, as well for the safeguarding of that commerce as for the maintenance of British power. According to the government reports, this shore-line is also the richest part of the island, whether you regard the products of the sea, the capabilities of the soil, the treasures of the subsoil, the climate or timber resources. It is likewise Newfoundland's natural gateway to her continent. One would say, therefore, that the true policy both for the Island and the Empire should be to strengthen the base as much as possible, to people it

with English subjects, to foster its industries and promote its development by every means available.

Now what is its present condition ; or one may go further afield and ask, what is the condition of the shore-line going by the north from Cape Ray to Cape Bauld and down the east coast to Cape St. John, a distance of 340 miles as the crow flies and 800 or 900 miles along high-water-mark ? You may compare it with the tract that stretches from Portsmouth by Land's End to the Solway. There is no spot fortified or strengthened in any way. A portion of your taxes goes to secure what, in departmental language, is called "the protection" of that coast. These moneys are spent year by year, particularly during the last fifty years, not to settle or develop but to make and keep that large part of her Majesty's dominions a wilderness, a sort of pariah's or no-man's-land, a region where at least men of English blood and English speech may not find subsistence for themselves and those dependent on them. Twelve thousand of your fellow-subjects dwell within the bounds, peaceable, long-suffering, and loyal citizens, who should be and, in my opinion, are as much entitled as any man within these realms to that ample protection for person, family, and property which is so dear to Englishmen the world over, and which English law, their birthright no less than yours, so freely guarantees ; yet these men, women, and children have been held heretofore, are now held, and, unless some substantial change takes place, will be held hereafter (I quote the words of Lord Salisbury) "in a state of siege" from the cradle to the grave. They may till no land, open or work no mine, engage in no lumbering operations, build no wharf or pier, erect no factory, home, or shelter, they may not follow their avocations in their own waters, on other terms than sufferance or free from the penalty of bombardment. Now I put it down to you as Englishmen :

is it fair to impose this helotism on your fellow-subjects? Is the policy that enforces and continues it on British soil honourable to this mighty Empire? I ask the question, because I am sure of your answer; because I know that the feeling of solidarity that is now animating every part of the Queen's dominions will in no long time put an end for ever to the solecism.

I shall be told, no doubt, of lions in the path, of foreign claims and the sanctity of treaties; in particular, of an arrangement made with France in 1713, or a hundred and eighty-six years ago. But have treaties never been unmade, abrogated, denounced, changed, or modified? Dumont's, Marten's, Hertslet's collections tell quite another tale. The instruments I speak of have been broken no less than six times by the outbreak of war; why, then, were they sedulously renewed on every return of peace? How comes it that those parts only of the old documents were revived which pertain to Newfoundland, all the rest falling into desuetude? Again, how is it that, in addition to reimposing the old servitudes, attempts should be made to expand and confirm them by new and perpetual grants at so late date as 1857, 1884, and 1885? Neither the sanctity of treaties nor "historic misfortune" in past times gives any explanation on these points. In the circumstances, there is room for another suggestion, namely, that there has heretofore been no immediate or direct responsibility on the question.

Let me put a case. Let us suppose that the west of England were blocked up by treaty as the west of Newfoundland is, and that the varied industries of Liverpool, Barrow, and Preston, of Southport, Cardiff, and Bristol were brought to an untimely end or stayed under threat of the strong arm. I must ask you to go a step further, and imagine a ministry adopting the scheme as a policy or permitting it to continue, though



not themselves its primary authors. What would you think of the sanctity of the arrangement? Would the House of Commons accept the plea of treaty made a century ago as a sufficient warrant for the continued siege? Or the voters in these western constituencies whose interests were affected, whose prospects were blighted, whose means of living were destroyed—do you imagine they would rally with enthusiasm to the support of that government, be its party-profession what it may? You know as well as I know that no such administration could stand one hour within these realms. May we not indulge the hope that some day the territorial integrity of the Colonies will be no less esteemed than that of the Mother Country?

Many nations now have colonies, but none of them sets the inviolability of these possessions at so high a point as France; she claims it for them as strictly as for her European dominions. Why should she not? In point of domestic law, in point of international law, is not the soil of Martinique as much French property as that of Marseilles? But our neighbours go further, and cause their claim to be respected as well in the case of new colonies as those of old standing. You recollect that, a short time since, England had definite rights in Tunis and Madagascar. Rightly or wrongly, these countries became French colonies. At the request of France, her Majesty's ministers consented to abolish the English rights almost as a matter of course, and on the ground that they were inconsistent with the new status. Are not the English colonies as large, populous, rich, and important as those of France? Why, then, is not the generally accepted doctrine of international law invoked in the former as in the latter case? Our fellow-subjects are surely entitled to as liberal treatment from English statesmen as English statesmen are prepared to accord to foreigners. Newfoundland makes no greater claim!

A curious instance of what one may call contrariety of principle on this question arises in regard to St. Pierre-Miquélon, a small group of French islands which lie seven or eight miles off the Newfoundland coast. In 1783 the French executive made a declaration regarding them, and a counterpart of that declaration, applicable to the neighbouring coast, was made at the same time by the English minister. The two instruments, be their value what it may, stand on the same ground and are of equal obligation. Now the French do not, and never did, execute their part of the arrangement; on the contrary, they have heretofore treated and do now treat it as non-existent. Well, then, about the middle of the century the law-officers of the Crown were consulted on the point, and gave their opinion that France was in the right and in no way obliged to carry out the terms of the document. In view of international law, the law officers are undoubtedly correct; for neither the English nor the French declaration is part of the Treaty of 1783 or of any other treaty. They are proposals, or offers, or promises that the respective makers may execute or not as they choose; one may say, they are voluntary pronouncements of a then present intention, but are of no further validity. The French elect not to be bound by their minister's declaration; therefore they are not bound, and may do as they will with St. Pierre-Miquélon. Our government accepts the situation in regard to the French islands, and adopts the view of its law-officers. So far so good. But what shall we say of the English declaration, the counterpart of the French? Its invalidity would be established very easily in a court of law. But here comes in the contrariety I speak of. The French declaration is of no avail, but the English declaration, which is on the same footing, must be executed against the English colonists at the mouth of the cannon, if need be. In these words, you have the

principle or contrariety of principle according to which the west coast of Newfoundland has been ruled since about the time of Waterloo. Do you wonder, then, that it is little better than a desert?

Some of you may have access to Hansard, and Hansard has much that concerns Newfoundland. If you look through its pages for the last fifty or sixty years, you will almost invariably find that the English declaration of 1783 is vouched by authority to excuse or warrant not merely the general condition of the west of the island, but whatever act of petty tyranny may happen to occur at any time.

On the assumption of its binding force, you may justify almost anything by its terms, from a compulsory sale of herrings at such a price, or the shutting of a lobster factory, up to the wholesale deportation of the inhabitants and all their belongings. It is comprehensive. It makes no difference in its interpretation whether or not Newfoundland is raised to the dignity of a self-governing colony. Neither does it matter what party is in power; the same rule obtains, the continuity of policy proceeds, under the Big Englishers as under the Little Englishers. I was going to say that it matters little whether or not the local legislature protests in the forms prescribed by the constitution; but it matters much. Protests have been made, are numerous, and have been generally followed not by relief but by increased stringency. The fact of protestation or petition is, somehow or other, taken to be a kind of wrong, a sort of crime unknown to English law, and for which, I suppose, we must invent the term *lèse-department*.

But, setting the departmental assumption aside, you may ask what is the real origin of the blockade, the reason for its continuance? Both law and history seem to concur in answering not declaration, not treaty, not statute, but tradition or the force of tradition. One

or two broad facts may throw light on the situation. In the history of the eastern part of the island, you will find substantially the same system at work, though on broader lines. If you take your stand at the end of last century, you may trace it back through statute, executive order, and custom, almost to the day when England first had a navy. It is the well-known status of the ship-fishery. Turning to later times, you will find it operative till 1824, when it was, with other curious laws, formally abolished by Parliament. At that time, the west as well as the east should have been relieved of the "old man of the sea," and opened to modern civilisation. Unfortunately it was a *terra incognita*, and remained, or was suffered to remain, under the control of the Admiralty. Was there any statutory sanction for that control? I have not found any. It may be said that in the same year (1824) an Act was passed to execute such treaties as then existed—the Treaty of 1814-15 with France, and of 1818 with the United States—and that it gave enlarged powers for the purpose. But to make that argument of avail one should, in the first place, show that the treaties, or either of them, established or re-established or continued the blockade. That postulate should appear in clear and unambiguous language, because international law construes with strictness all limitations of or encroachments upon local sovereignty. Now, it will not be pretended that the United States' convention closes the shore to English enterprise. Then as to the French arrangement, what but tradition could induce men to convert a few general words used to restore a fishing right to a foreign nation into a perpetual obligation to bombard their fellow-subjects? But, then, you will say, what does the statute direct? It does not restore the old fishery system that had just been abolished, gives no explicit directions on the subject, and confines itself to general



powers for the execution of treaties without even specifying them. Outside of use and wont, what power is there so hardy as to supplement the declarations of Parliament and undertake to supply its presumed omissions? But let us suppose no forced construction was put on the statute or statutes in question; then, they lapsed and were made to lapse in 1832. From that date onward, at least till 1892, when the case of *Baird v. Walker* came before the Privy Council, there was no legislative warrant for the state of siege. But during all these weary years it continued in unabated vigour, pursuing the ignoble tenor of its way, independent at once of international obligation and statutory direction.

You may, then, ask what should be done in this complicated affair? I would rather that the question be directed to her Majesty's ministers in this country or to her Majesty's ministers in the colony; yet, as it arises fairly out of my subject, I will submit to you what seems to me proper in the circumstances. "I speak as to wise men; judge ye what I say." I should propose, then: (1) that the jurisdiction assumed by the department or given to naval officers to interpret existing treaties should be discontinued or abolished. It is a survival from last century, and was even then an archaic instrument for the purpose. The fact that the local legislature was not asked to continue the *modus vivendi* this year, is supposed to indicate that the device will cease with the century. (2) The territorial waters of Newfoundland in the west, as in the east, should be placed fully and frankly under the control of the colony. This step should have been taken in 1824, or, if not at that time, in 1855, when self-government was granted. (3) Until foreign claims are done away, the Newfoundland courts should be empowered to adjudicate on such international questions as may arise. (4) While

foreign complications last, naval cruisers should continue in Newfoundland waters to assist in the execution of the courts' decisions in affairs international, in the enforcement of fishing regulations and customs laws. (5) The restrictions that forbid the granting of clear titles to land, or the free use of land when granted, should be set aside and the right of the colony in that regard affirmed.

I do not say these would cure all the evils of the western shore. But they are available now and would work a substantial improvement on the actual condition of affairs. They would place Newfoundland on a par with the other self-governing communities of the Empire, and enable her to control and develop her resources. Some of them, as the first and third, it may be said, are, or are on the point of being granted; therefore, legislation in regard to them is needless. But where, as in Newfoundland, there has been so much trouble and confusion, so much double and doubtful jurisdiction, a short declaratory act, even in matters obvious, could do little harm, and might prevent a great deal of mischief. None of them, it will be again said, calls for the immediate removal of servitudes. True; but they will reduce the servitudes to legal limits, and will establish a broad distinction between a fishing privilege exercisable by outsiders within British territory under British law and the sealing of a shore-line of 900 miles, lest, perchance, some foreigner may at some time desire to drop a line or draw a net at some unknown spot in its contour. The burden of showing that there is a foreign claim, its extent and scope, will be placed not where it now is but where it should be—on the alien, not on the subject of the colony. Foreigners will cease to apportion the shore as heretofore. No doubt the end to be sought, the point to which modern civilisation tends, is the total abolition of servitudes. But can we reach that end

by operating, or endeavouring to operate, in the first instance, on the policy, principles, and purposes of France and the United States? These nations, whatever seeming lull may take place from time to time, may be expected to maintain their position as they have done heretofore. A change, and a great change is called for; but must we not seek that change primarily within rather than outside the Empire? Must we not seek it in the people, in the statesmen who control our destinies—I do not say in their persons, but in their attitude? On the day when the territory of the Colonies shall be held to be inviolable, as the soil of England is now held to be inviolable, there will be no question as to the continuance of foreign rights. The problem will solve itself. Neither France nor the United States will refuse to accord to the British possessions that full immunity which, for so long time, they have asserted for even the remotest part of their own dominions. That day is, in my opinion, not far distant. The enthusiasm that is now circling the Empire does not arise merely because steps are taken to assure equality of right and the stability of the Empire in South Africa. Its well-spring is much deeper. It demands that the safety of the British dominions be assured against all opposing forces; that their integrity, individuality, immunity, be fully vindicated everywhere.

There are special reasons why Newfoundland should be released from the hold of France. She has refused to submit to an arbitration-board the full question of what her treaty-rights are. A *modus vivendi*, arresting the development of the Newfoundland lobster industry, but devised in the hope that France would come to a more friendly frame of mind, made in 1890, and continued from year to year till this year, has been wholly without avail. Neither in ancient nor in modern times has the colony had

commercial relation with the French as she has had with the Spanish, the Portuguese, the Brazilians. On the contrary, French policy has forbidden intercourse, and, during the last half-century, has been markedly hostile. By laws of the following dates—July 22, 1851; July 28, 1860; August 2, 1870; December 15, 1880; July 31, 1890, which remain in force till 1901—she bounties the outfit of ships and assigns them drying-places (*secheries*), not merely in St. Pierre-Miquelon but on the Newfoundland coast; she provisions them free of duty—itself a large bounty; she presents to every man that ships on board the sum of fifty francs; she bounties the cod-fish taken to the extent of sixteen shillings per metric quintal or eight shillings per hundred-weight. Additional sums are paid for subsidiary products, as cod-roes, oils, &c. If you look into the last report of the consul at Bordeaux (December 8, 1898), you will see that the total government subsidy amounts to more than nine shillings per hundred-weight of fish taken. Nine shillings a hundred-weight leaves a handsome margin over the cost of the article. Whatever be the state of the market, the French fisherman cannot lose and may easily undersell his English competitor. Not content with this, the diplomacy of our neighbour secures differential treatment for her bonused product in Spain, Italy, and among the Latin nations generally. It makes no difference what pretence France may advance to justify her action. Neither does it matter whether you can or cannot change the internal policy of that country. The fact remains in all its broad lines, open, palpable, persistent. Now, let me ask you, is it not somewhat difficult for a small colony of 230,000 persons to battle against such mighty odds? Is there any fairness in keeping one half its territory under the heel of such a country? Is it not rather a duty as well to the Empire as the Colony to withdraw at the



earliest possible moment privileges that for so long time have been so grossly abused?

## V

Let me now ask you to turn your attention to Eastern Newfoundland, where the mass of the population resides, that portion which stretches from Cape St. John to Cape Race and from Cape Race to Cape Ray. For many years past there has been very little immigration, while the emigration to the United States and Canada is said to have been considerable. According to the census, 97 per cent. of the present inhabitants are native born. Religion and dialect give a clue to their origin. Of the 210,000 persons enumerated 1500 are Presbyterians. They are engaged chiefly in mercantile pursuits, are mostly of Scotch descent, and, though more influential than their numbers would indicate, are late comers. Their access to the island can scarcely be placed beyond this century. The next main division is the Roman Catholics, who dwell, for the most part, within the peninsula of Avalon, and are from the south of Ireland. They number about 73,000. It is at least doubtful whether Lord Baltimore's plantation in Ferryland added to the permanent inhabitants; but excluding these, if any, one may not unfairly assign the incoming of the Irish as a body to about the middle of the last century. Arthur Young, you will remember, gives a very lively description of the brisk trade there was between Cork and St. John's in his day. The residue of the population belong to the Church of England and the Wesleyan body. They are of English descent. In his recent journey through the island, Mr. Beekles Willson detects their original county. He finds Devon almost everywhere outside St. John's, the habits, speech, and customs of Devon; and calls Mr. Blackmore's attention to the subject.

The fact naturally strikes a Newfoundlander in the opposite way. In the west country, his native land is vividly brought before him.

It is said that this Devonshire population in the New World represents the oldest English colonisation beyond sea. Inasmuch as the present series covers the outer Empire, it may not be improper to consider on what ground Newfoundland claims to be the oldest of the colonies. It goes without saying that she antedates, as part of the Empire, the many coaling-stations that dot the ocean, the flourishing colonies of Africa and Australasia, the vast dependency of India and that magnificent group, the protagonist of colonial progress, the Dominion of Canada. The only contest would seem to lie between Newfoundland and Bermuda, or, if we go beyond the bounds of the present Empire, between Newfoundland and Virginia. You will recollect that Mr. Justin Winsor in his very elaborate and painstaking work, "The Narrative and Critical History of America," tacitly ignores the Newfoundland pretension, and proceeds on the assumption that Virginia, now part of the United States, was the first English colony in America.

Much depends on what one means by the word colony. Its ordinary signification, I imagine, is restricted to a body of persons who by mutual agreement leave the Mother Country, go forth under charter or crown authorisation, and make a new settlement within prescribed limits which endures and grows as well by inward as outward accessions. Massachusetts Bay, Champlain's settlement in New France, most English as well as foreign colonies are of this description. Now, if collective action, crown sanction, and definite limits are of the essence of a colony, I fear that Newfoundland has very little claim to the first rank among English establishments; it is questionable, indeed, whether she has more than a shred of

title to be a colony at all. It is true that from 1610 in the reign of James I. to 1660, the date of the Restoration, certain charters were issued and a number of attempts made to colonise the island. The efforts of Guy and Mason, of Sir William Vaughan, the genial author of "*Cambrensiū Catoleia*" and the "*Golden Grove*," Lords Falkland and Baltimore, and of Sir David Kirke are well known. But the earliest of these (1610) was subsequent to the founding of Virginia (1607); each and all of them failed; and none of them had any marked effect on settlement. They were, in fact, destroyed by the men of Devon, who claimed title against the King's charter "west and by law." It is likewise true that the first English patent issued for occupation of America as distinguished from discovery was given to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who sighted Bonavista in 1583 and proceeded forthwith to St. John's, which was a general rendezvous then as now well known, to replenish his stores and refit his ships. We have a detailed account of his proceedings in Hakluyt's "*Collections*." You will recollect how, being at first denied admission, he entered the harbour on Saturday the 3rd of August, and found there "thirty to forty" sail of English and foreign vessels; how, on the following Monday, he hoisted the English flag from a pavilion prepared for the purpose, read his commission, and, in the name of the Virgin Queen, laid claim to all lands within 200 leagues in all directions, taking seisin to himself and his associates by the old symbolism of the "turf and twig"; how, the ceremony over, the day and deed were celebrated by copious libations of wine, salvoes of cannon, general rejoicings, and an immense display of colours; how he ordained that laws to be thereafter made should be agreeable to those of England, and set an example by promulgating three, one of which established the Church of England; how

he made grants of land within his domain to persons that applied to him, and refused titles to others; and, generally, how he was entertained at the "admiral's" weekly banquet, in the "garden" and elsewhere. All this took place twenty-four years before the permanent establishment of Virginia, and, on the strength of it, Newfoundland is sometimes called England's oldest possession in the New World. But, as the ship that bore Gilbert foundered on his homeward voyage and his associates prosecuted the enterprise no further, his undertaking lacked two important elements of colonisation, namely, permanence and internal growth. It may be ranked with Raleigh's plantation on the Roanoke two years later, or with Gosnold's experiment in New England in 1602.

But are collective action, crown authorisation, prescription of limits, necessary tests of colonisation? If so, how shall we class the mutineers of the *Bounty*? Had they the authorisation of the crown? Did the establishment in Somers Island take place, in the first instance, within a prescribed zone? Or what shall we say of the cradle of New England, the home of the "Pilgrim Fathers," the plantation of New Plymouth, to which Mr. Winsor rightfully devotes so much attention? Did it become an English colony only in 1629-30, when the charter was received? Was it not an English colony from the time of permanent settlement in 1620? Facts do not always happen according to regulation-theory, and I doubt whether you can get other tests of English colonisation than these—permanence, internal growth, connection with the Empire. They are at least important, and, if we accept them as sufficient, a very substantial argument may be advanced on behalf of Newfoundland's alleged seniority. The examination may also serve to cast some light on the part which the island played in the expansion of England's trade, in the colonisation



of North America, and thereby in the civilisation of the world.

The question of priority might seem to be settled by a remark of Sabine, who, in his report on the principal fisheries of the American seas, presented to the United States Government in 1853, says there was a resident population in Newfoundland as early as 1522, and sets the number of their houses at forty to fifty. However probable the statement may be, the author gives no reference to his authority, and the most industrious of Newfoundland historians, Judge Prowse, has not been able to find any direct proof of it. We must therefore put it aside.

The best evidence, as well of early settlement as of permanent growth, would evidently be genealogical registers, whether ecclesiastical or public. The care shown by the French has enabled the Abbé Tanguay to construct tables of descent for a whole people in the province of Quebec. The English have nowhere been so particular as the French in this regard, and, so far as concerns Newfoundland, the formation of registers for any but private purposes began at a very late date within the present century. Under the circumstances, the argument is necessarily indirect or circumstantial. It concerns a process of peopling such as is now going on silently but inevitably in Western Newfoundland and along the coast of the Labrador—its efficient cause, the fisheries.

The primary fact is this, that throughout Tudor times from 1497, England had a large trade with Newfoundland. Sir Josiah Child, our chief authority on trade questions under the Restoration, estimates that in or about 1605, just before the planting of Virginia, the Newfoundland business gave occupation to 270 English ships yearly. He tells us also in his "Discourse of Trade" that it was the "largest single navigation" that this country then had. The general

accuracy of his statement is confirmed by contemporary accounts as Mason's, Whitbourne's, Captain John Smith's.

The industry was favoured by law, as one may see in the "Statutes of the Realm." Twenty-five years before the granting of the Virginia charter, Queen Elizabeth forbade the importation of foreign-caught fish save only that which was "taken and salted" by her own subjects whose attention is directed to "the providinge and bringinge in of fyshe in and out of the countrey of Islande (Iceland), Shotlande, and Newfoundlande" (23 Eliz. c. 7, 1581). Ten years previously (1571), she renewed an Act that had been found "of advantage to the navy," which provided for the free exportation of fish caught by English subjects in foreign parts, and compelled its home consumption by the device of political fasts (13 Eliz. c. 11; 5 Eliz. c. 5). She took special pains to enforce the observance of the statute of 1548, which abolishes "divers exactions as sommes of money, doles or shares of fyshe" on such "merchaunts and fishermen as adventure and journey into Iselande, Newfoundlande, Irelande, and other places commodious for fyshinge and getting fyshe" (2 and 3 Ed. vi. c. 6). This statute in turn enlarges the scope of an Act of Henry VIII. which penalises "the regrating and engrossing of fysshe," forbids entrance to the foreign-caught article, but excepts imports by persons "which shall bye and fysshe in any parties of Iselande, Scotlande, Shotlande, Irelande, or Newlande," that is, Newfoundland (33 Hen. VIII. c. 2). In 1541, therefore, and before it, there must have been a substantial trade with this portion of the New World, a trade of fishing and buying fish, sufficiently substantial to be provided for by a general enactment. The statute itself is the first English Act that mentions any part of America. We may take the statutory precedence of the island to be settled.

This succession of statutes is in itself sufficient to show that England did not, according to the Dieppese pretension, neglect the Cabots' discoveries for more than a century, that is, during the Tudor period. It casts light on Parkhurst's assertion (1578) that the English "are commonly lords of the harbours where they fish"; and on the account of Hayes, the historian of the Gilbert expedition (1583): "the English command all there," "always be admirals by turns interchangeably over the fleets of fishermen within the same harbour." The entries of rewards, loans, gifts, which appear year after year in Henry VII's Privy Purse accounts, indicate at how early a date they began to cross the Atlantic commonly. Their purpose in so doing is stated in the letter of Raimondo de Soncino to the Duke of Milan, dated at London 18th December 1497. He is telling of Cabot's return and success, and adds: "The sea is full of fish, which are taken not only with a net but also with a basket in which a stone is put, so that the basket may plunge in the water. . . . The Englishmen, his partners (that is, Cabot's partners, for the enterprise was a joint undertaking), say that they can bring so many fish that the kingdom will have no more business with Islanda (Iceland), and that from this country there will be a great trade in the fish they call stock-fish." Cabot may have sought the land of gold and spices and precious stones, King Henry's mind may have been turned in that direction also for the profit of the treasury and to rival King Ferdinand, but the Bristol men seized at once the actualities as well as the possibilities of the situation. For many a long year they had traded to Iceland; from this time forth their attention was turned to Newfoundland. The trade they opened was and continued to be a great trade down to the opening of this century.

The custom or mode of regulation which controlled

the English in Iceland and Norway was forthwith introduced into the New World. The evidence of it is contained in the patent to Ward, Thomas, and their associates, dated the 19th of March 1501; as also in the patent to Elliot, Ashehurst, and others of date the 9th of December 1502. It rested on the sole power of the admiral, the chief fact in the constitutional history of Newfoundland. It provides for the shares or doles of the adventurers: one each to the seamen or fishermen, two to the mate, four to the master. We may note in passing that the patentees were empowered without further license to carry to Newfoundland men and women who should be willing to remain and inhabit as well as those who desired to visit merely. Whether they settled or did not settle, Newfoundland offered them four advantages over Iceland: a larger quantity and a better quality of fish; timber for all needful purposes; a mild climate, where Parkhurst tells us he had planted "wheat, barley, rye, beans, peas, and seeds of herbs, plumstones, nuts, all which prospered as in England"; a large extent of coast which they might occupy without asking leave of any civilised power or people. The aborigines, the Beothiks, were never numerous, and passed away at an early date.

The ports principally interested in the trade in Tudor times were Bristol, Barnstaple, Dartmouth, Poole, Plymouth, Weymouth. Owing to want of system in the customs accounts of the outports, it is impossible to fix with any degree of accuracy the volume or value of the industry for any particular year. Besides, if the Bristol authorities are to be believed, the Newfoundland adventurers were notorious and persistent smugglers; they evaded payment even of the impost appropriated to relieve the sick and wounded who had suffered in the fight with the Armada. The notices that have come down to us vary,



and vary much. We hear of twenty ships in one year, of eighty in another, of 200 or more in a third. There were, no doubt, periods of growth, periods of decline periods of fluctuation. Parkhurst (1578), for instance, says that the fishery had of late days declined, and that only fifty English vessels resorted to Newfoundland, the greater number having turned towards Iceland and Norway. An unsigned memorandum in Cecil's handwriting gives the following numbers for the fishing-fleet cleared from the several ports up to the 2nd of March in the year 1594, and may be of use for a proportional estimate for the years immediately following the defeat of the Armada: thirty-six for Newfoundland, four for Iceland, eight for the German Ocean. The whole English fishing-fleet at that time is supposed to have numbered about 350. The general situation just prior to the Armada may be inferred from Raleigh's address to Lord Burleigh: "The Newfoundland fishery is the mainstay and support of the western counties. If any accident should happen to that fleet, it would be the greatest misfortune that could befall England." In regard to numbers, therefore, we may conclude that Child's representation for 1605 is very probable, that the fishery itself was of long standing, and was one of the staple industries of England.

As our argument is inferential and cumulative, let us look at the question of value. The earliest detailed presentment I can find in the Calendar of State Papers, Colonial series, is dated the 16th of March 1620. You may say that is sometime after the foundation of Virginia. But the fortune of that colony was yet wavering, and twelve ships loaded with provisions and carrying 1200 settlers had just been sent to her relief. The document was presented to the King, referred to the Secretary of State, and its prayer was in part acted on. Its data were furnished by

Captain Mason, the Governor of Guy's Colony from 1615, whose means of information were exceptionally good. It numbers the English fleet then engaged in the Newfoundland trade at 300, and states that its contribution to his Majesty's revenue was £10,000. If we take 5 per cent. to be the rate of duty, and it can scarcely have been higher, the product of the fisheries brought into England must have been worth £200,000 of these days. To translate the sum into current values, one should multiply by six or seven. The petition goes on to show what subsidiary industries benefit by the trade, and concludes that neither in number nor value is it equalled by "any one maritime trade in the kingdom." The total imports of England for that year are given at £2,141,000.

Whitbourne, who had been on the coast for forty years and held the first commission to administer justice as vice-admiral, says in his "Discourse" (p. 40): "So, again, it is to be considered that yearly from the Newfoundland, as the trade now is, the subjects bring from thence to the value of much above £135,000." On page 45 he ranks it "above the sum of £150,000." Let us take the smaller estimate, in order to be on the safe side. It is made for 1615, and its items are given on page 12. To find its modern equivalent multiply by six and you have £810,000 as the then yearly value of this fishery. Nor will the sum seem excessive if we consult Mr. Thorold Rogers' book on "Prices." He says that, from 1583 to 1623, the price of cod-fish rose from fifty shillings the long hundred to seventy-three; that, from 1623 to 1663, it rose from seventy-three to eighty-three shillings; and that thereafter it remained stationary for near a century. £810,000 a year! Was Bacon, then, indulging in rhodomontade, as we generally suppose, when he said that these waters had yielded more wealth to England than the mines of Peru and Mexico had afforded Spain? Hav-

ing given the approximate statement for Newfoundland, I add Humboldt's estimate of Spain's yearly return from the New World: from 1492 to 1521, £52,000; from 1522 to 1545, £630,000; from 1546 to 1578, £440,000; for the rest of the century, £280,000. There was one marked difference between the cases. The flow of American treasure into Spain ceased at a comparatively early date. The wealth this country drew from Newfoundland was regular and permanent as the onflow of the northern current. It rose steadily year by year. In 1640, it amounted to £700,000, by 1670 to £800,000 of the value of the time. Throughout the seventeenth and for a great part of the eighteenth century, it maintained its relative position in the industries of the realm, affording lucrative employment for large numbers of the seamen of England, and contributing its quota to the building up of her world-wide commerce.

That this English fishery began at a very early date, was prosecuted with vigour, and attained large proportions before the planting of Virginia, or the opening of the seventeenth century is, I submit, clear. Its bearing on actual settlement springs not merely from the fact that the men of Devon had a practically free field there or dominated all, but from the need of the fishery itself. In order to its successful prosecution, some settlement—some substantial settlement—was necessary for the building, preserving, and repairing of boats, dwellings, flakes, stages, &c., used in curing and drying fish; for the mending of nets and sails; the making of oars and masts; the preparation of train and skins; for the early catch in April and May, and the late harvest in October and November; for the supply of bait at all seasons, and provisioning the ships' crews with fresh food in the place of salt. That we have no direct account of its origin and progress, with dates and numbers specifically set forth, desirable as

that may be, does not militate against the general position, for the reason previously given: that precisely the same process, from the same causes, has gone on in the west shore and Labrador within this century, apart from state authorisation, without combined action, without statistical reports. At the same time, such accounts as have come down to us, in their frequent reference to boat-building, cultivation, &c., presuppose settlement. As an example, I take an extract from Whitbourne, from that portion of his "Discourse" (p. 53) where he endeavours to dissipate the prejudices of his countrymen in regard to the alleged coldness of the climate: "And likewise it hath been in some winters so hard frozen in the River Thames above London Bridge, neere the Court, that the tenderest fair ladies and gentlewomen that are in any part of the world, who have beheld it, and great numbers of people have there sported on the ice many days together, and have felt it colder there than men do that live in Newfoundland." The conclusion may be enforced when we call to mind that "250 saill of ships" would carry "above 5000 Englishmen" yearly, or an average of 20 per vessel. Instead of returning home each trip with its risk as to selection of places, its delay in preparation for the season's work, yearly to be renewed; should we not expect that some by preference or arrangement would remain for the common benefit, at first for a winter, and then permanently? By the time the industry had grown to such proportions as to be favoured by Parliament—that is, in 1541—it is by no means improbable that the nucleus of a resident population had been already formed.

Those who afterwards planted Somers Island or Bermuda came upon it by chance, and were wrecked. The next year, 1610, having built two vessels they continued their voyage to Virginia, and found the colonists reduced from 500 to 60, and on the point



of leaving. Their destination was Newfoundland, to which Gilbert, Raleigh, and Gosnold had turned in their distresses; the general haven and storehouse of the North Atlantic, at least from the days of Cartier and Roberval; the one place in America where relief could be obtained. That it should have had no civilised inhabitants or permanent settlers at the time almost passes belief. Our first actual return is for 1626, and gives the then population between Cape Bonavista and Cape Race as 350 families, or 1750 persons.

You will recollect that, when James I. issued his charters for the occupation of North America, he divided the continent into two sections—North and South Virginia—and drew the northern boundary at parallel 46, thus including Cape Breton and excluding Newfoundland. She stood apart from her continent at that time very much, I am sorry to add, as she does to-day. She represented then, as she represents now, the middle term, the necessary postulate, between land cultivation on this side of the Atlantic and land cultivation on the other: I mean the fisheries. We may not be able to realise fully the large part they played in the migration of western nations and the civilising of the continent; but the fact that foreign claims still press on her shores may be taken to indicate that these fisheries were of vital importance in the process, and that the struggle for their possession was both keen and long continued.

## VI

One might have expected that as settlement arose out of a large and profitable trade, it would have grown rapidly, and that we should find in the island to-day, not 230,000 people merely, but more than two millions. The expectation is just, and might have been realised if the plan that succeeded with other English estab-

lishments had been pursued in Newfoundland from the first. The rules of the chartered companies, beginning with Guy's Company, of which Lord Bacon was a member, were wise enough and likely enough to succeed. But, in the first place, they received only parcels of the island, and therefore had not full control, and could not introduce law, order, or system. Again, by 1610, there was no possibility of regulating the trade by way of chartered company. It had grown so as to employ 250 vessels, carrying probably 5000 men. These men, or the masters of the craft, by long custom had been used to go where they would and do as they liked, irrespective of all authority. They claimed the island as a free fishery, were favoured by special acts, and were prepared to push their traditional privileges to the uttermost, if need be. The chartered companies could not succeed even as private enterprises. They engrossed, to use the language of their opponents, a considerable section of the shore that before had been free, and were changing the customary order of the industry. Instead of a ship-fishery which had its head-quarters in England, and used settlement for subsidiary purposes only, they were introducing a sedentary fishery whose basis was in Newfoundland, and making settlement a primary consideration. The quarrel between the two came before the king as early as 1619, and ended in a virtual victory for the free or uncontrolled fishery. The plan that found a clear field in Virginia and New England encountered nothing but opposition in Newfoundland, opposition that it was powerless to withstand. To have had a chance even of surviving, it should have been begun at least a century before the date of its actual trial.

Setting aside Henry VII.'s patents, one may trace "the ancient custom of the fisheries," so dear to the Long Parliament, from Parkhurst's letter (1578) through

Hayes' pamphlet (1584) till it takes developed form in Whitbourne's "Discourse" (1620). It is converted into a system of Regulations by the Star Chamber in 1633 which were amplified from time to time till 1675. Under William III. it becomes a statute in 1698. Buttressed by many orders of the Board of Trade, it is further enforced by Palliser's Acts in the reign of George III. It persists with modifications till 1824, when the whole system was swept away. It is described at its best by Chief-Justice Reeves in his History of Newfoundland. You will find a popular representation of its working in Mr. Hatton's "Under the Great Seal." Sir Josiah Child expounds its economic principles. It is a reduction to practice, thorough and unrelieved, of the mercantile theory which for so long time controlled the councils not merely of this country, but of Western Europe. It became part of the French maritime code under Colbert, and was put in force at Placentia.

Now, what was the outcome of the mercantile theory, the ancient custom that governed Newfoundland for more than two centuries? Its organ is sometimes described as a corporation. A trading corporation of the Tudor type, it finds its parallel in the association of the Eastland merchants. Its members, found in all parts of the western counties, competed keenly with each other, but joined their forces to destroy the common enemy, to support the common cause, to gain the ear of power. They resembled a board of trade rather than a company in our acceptance of the word.

Coming to the knowledge of history in 1619, their first object was to harass and root out the interlopers, as they called them, who began to trespass on their reserves, the colonists of Guy and Vaughan and Baltimore. So completely did they succeed that in 1675 they secured an order to the Admiralty to extirpate all inhabitants without distinction, and trans-

port them to other regions where their presence would be less mischievous. The order was not executed, because some degree of settlement was needful for the fishery and the French began to be troublesome at the time. But strict measures were taken to prevent increase, lest Newfoundland should imitate New England and become an independent centre of trade. Under heavy penalties, amply secured, masters of vessels became bound to bring home all persons they carried to the fisheries. The antipathy of the Anti-Immigration Society was particularly directed against women. You may judge with what persistency their plan was executed from the tardy increase of the resident population. In 1626 their numbers were 1750; in 1716, 3506; in 1751, 5835. When the violence of the system began to abate somewhat we find: in 1774, 12,340 persons; in 1792, 15,233; in 1804, 20,380; and in 1825, the year after its abolition, 55,719.

A principal feature of the ancient custom was that there should be no engrossing of land—in other words, no private property in it. How otherwise could the fishery be free? It is said that the prohibition extended only to six miles from high-water mark; but that distance covers the peninsula of Avalon, and in any part of Newfoundland prohibition of access to the sea means prohibition of settlement. Again, it is said, exception was made by the Act of 1698 in favour of those who had occupied a particular place during the six previous years. But if the provision applied to residents, how could they secure the right? There was but one method then, and for a century afterwards, namely—

“The good old rule, the simple plan,  
That he should take who has the power,  
And he should keep who can.”

Sale of lands was first permitted in 1811. Some small parcels near the shore-line had, no doubt, been



appropriated; but, as the terms of the holding were use in the fishery and sufferance, the governors of the day, admirals of the Royal Navy, deemed they were doing their country good service by tearing down houses, breaking up enclosures, and reducing garden-patches to a state of nature. A chimney was an object of special abhorrence, and the addition of a lean-to was sufficient to bring on the daring offender's head the sharp justice of the quarter-deck. At the same time their extreme solicitude for the soil did not prevent devastation of the forest on a large scale.

Down to 1832, there was no law-making faculty on the island nor any organisation that could be developed into such a faculty, municipal or other. The same remark applies to justice and its administration, though in a lesser degree. Courts were instituted in regular form in 1826. Back to 1791, you find an establishment, tentative in its standing and jurisdiction, which was kept alive by annual acts lest any permanent encroachment should be made on the free fishery. It illustrates the advantage, now so much talked of regarding the west coast, "the great advantage of not being in a hurry." But prior to that time, nothing more tangible in the way of law could be obtained than "winter justices," constituted under executive order, whose decisions the bold west countrymen scoffed at and whose decrees they defied. The dispensers of justice confessed their weakness, and regularly adjourned, "while His Excellency continued within the bounds of his government." Prior to 1726, there was neither excellency nor justice, and the skippers of the west country held uncontrolled sway, vouching the statute of King William (1698) for all their deeds. It was their real charter, and was declaratory of their custom. It recognised the first of them that chanced upon a harbour to be admiral there for the season, the second to be vice-admiral, and the third

rear-admiral. It ordained no court, gave no compulsory jurisdiction, enacted no penal clauses—but what then? Who would question the right to his fishing-admiralship or set bounds to his power? As prosecutor, judge, jury, and executioner in his own case and that of his associates, he gave summary trial and sentence on the spot. A favourite and frequent punishment of those days was ducking from the yard-arm. Should the delinquent not be convinced of the error of his ways by these means—why, they keel-hauled him.

If you would picture the old custom in the vigour of its days, call to mind the course of business. Vessels fitted out from the western ports in early spring very much as they do to-day from Brittany. Before the time of convoy, when every man was his own protector, the race began from the shores of England. After convoy came into vogue, they were let loose at the Banks. The fleet would average 800 ships or more, and carry 16,000 men, and these west-countrymen of the olden time. Imagine what a struggle would ensue, each one aiming at the lordship of some harbour and all that it contained; at the best, for choice! How they would pounce on that defenceless coast, seizing the chief locations, buildings, stages! What scant consideration would be shown to any luckless resident that dared ask for justice or claim the benefit of his improvements!

The men of forty years ago decried the mercantile system as indefensible in theory and ruinous in practice. The newer school of economists tells us that, with all its faults, it was a movement, a great and necessary movement, in national advancement and general civilisation. In this as in other controversies, much depends upon times and seasons, ways and means, the side of the medal you consider. If you look to Newfoundland in 1825, and ask what justification it could show after

so long trial, the answer must be that it left not one building that endures, not a local improvement attempted or realised, not a school, not a road. In addition to the devastation it wrought, it restricted population to about 20,000—for the actual population of 1825 is not to be carried to its credit—and kept them as near to starvation-point as was compatible with existence. Judged by the western side of the medal, the mercantile policy stands self-condemned. What shall we say of the other side? I have endeavoured to adduce some ground for believing that it was substantially profitable to England, and further evidence might easily be obtained to support the general principle of the younger economists; but need we therefore endorse Sir Hugh Palliser's bounty system that came into force near the close of the eighteenth century? Its obvious purpose was twofold: to develop the fisheries and recruit the navy. As to the navy it failed, as the French bounty-laws now do. It was not, on its economic side, an attempt to create some new industry, but rather an effort to stay the course of history. Before his day, the ship-fishery had reached its maximum, and the merchant-adventurer who fitted out his own craft to fish with his own crew, making little use of land or residents, was fast disappearing or had already gone. The form of business was changed. A new class had arisen, a race of capitalists, who found it more convenient to purchase than to catch their cargo, and who were prepared to make advances in truck or cash in order to have the article already cured for export. This movement, afterwards known as the supply system and always associated more or less with the fishery, made rapid strides in the second half of the eighteenth century. By giving local employment, it increased the island's output largely, the credit of which is sometimes, though improperly, given to the Palliser Acts. It likewise doubled the popula-

tion in a comparatively short time, contrary to the purpose of these statutes (1776, 1786), whose scope and aim were to restrict the fisheries to the use of the realm and to secure "the annual return of all employed" in them "at the end of every fishing season." Instead of increasing, the English expeditions dwindled, and in time ceased, while the habitat or centre of business shifted by gradual steps from this country to the colony.

A further effect of Palliser's Acts was to lodge the management of the fisheries more firmly in the hands of the Admiralty. The policy and practice may have been suited to the time. Had they ceased on the west coast in 1824, when they ceased on the east coast, when the statutes that gave them force were abolished, no great harm might have resulted. Unfortunately they persist; but we may hope, surely, that the opening of the new century will witness the inauguration of a new and better condition.

## VII

The growth of population and the development of industrial enterprise brought about the establishment of representative institutions in 1832. The year 1842 witnessed the constitutional experiment of an amalgamated house—the Legislative Council, an appointed body, and the elected Assembly being rolled into one. The arrangement seems not to have been satisfactory, for, in 1848, there was a reversion to the ordinary type of colonial government, which was followed by the responsible or parliamentary régime in 1855. Newfoundland was the last of the Atlantic provinces of British North America to receive that boon. Like Nova Scotia and New Brunswick in pre-confederation days, Newfoundland is reluctant to decentralise her power. Municipal institutions have



yet to begin their career. Outside a council in St. John's, which is partly elective and has of late been honoured with a debt, the management of local affairs is in the hands of certain boards appointed by Government, and the cost of roads and bridges, of school establishments, and improvements generally, is borne upon the revenues of the island. While she thus escapes the annoyance of rates and assessments, she fails to enlist local sympathies, local attachments, local interests and responsibilities in the promotion of the welfare of localities—a force which has been more influential probably than any other in developing the neighbouring States and Western Canada.

The later history of the colony and, indeed, its present condition are intimately bound up with the supply system. Attaining its maximum in the sixties, it had many features of a monopoly, for it centred in the hands of a small body of capitalists, called "merchants," who resided in the chief towns as St. John's, Harbour Grace, Carbonear. It wielded almost absolute power over the main or sole industries of the country, the cod and seal fisheries, and had brought within its grasp the import as well as the export trade. In the case of the cod-fishery, the mode of business was somewhat as follows: advances in truck, known as "supplies," and consisting of such things as tackle, nets, twines, canvas for sails, clothing, provisions, &c., were dealt out to fishermen or middlemen in the spring at a charge debited which covered the risk of loss and prospective profit. In the autumn, or fall, a return was made of the season's catch, which, on being culled and sorted, was put to the credit side of the account, generally at a price that ruled in the local market. Further supplies were then required for the winter, and were had usually at the same rate, the balance, if any, being carried over to the next season. In the seal-fishery the same order was

observed, except that it was a joint venture, continued only for about a month, and the advance was limited to a "kit." In defence of the merchant's charges, it was said that he ran the chances of a bad season and of fluctuations in the foreign market. On the other hand, it was observed that he held the lever at both ends, and could, at least where he had many "dealers," recoup from one the losses he may have suffered from another. Anyway, it was a system that left much to the discretion of the individual and lent itself easily to the production of "good" dealers and "bad" dealers, of "good" merchants and "bad" ones.

Now, precisely in the sixties, in the heyday of "supply," there arose, and increased to alarming proportions, what is known as pauper relief. The Government had to step in and distribute sustenance to the people throughout large districts. Relief once given had to be continued, and prosperity in the fisheries seemed to make little difference in the result. Recriminations were plentiful, until, at length, the Legislature was forced to put its foot down firmly and leave the parties interested, dealers and merchants, to fight out the division of profit as between themselves. Pauper relief was nothing more than a governmental supplement to "supply."

That a system so open to abuse should come to an end somehow, and at some time, had been long foreseen. The form in which the crash should come was not revealed till the 10th of December 1894, when the Union and Commercial Banks, the only banks in the island, closed their doors. It is by no means improbable that, had Newfoundland entered the Canadian confederation in 1867, she might, by the up-growth of subsidiary industries in agriculture, mining, and manufactures, have decentralised her business, as happened in Nova Scotia, and evaded the crash altogether or in great part. Unfortunately,

the course of events was otherwise. Many causes contributed to the actual result: depreciation of her product in foreign countries by hostile tariffs; a fire that destroyed the greater part of St. John's, and excited commiseration on both sides of the Atlantic; the division of estates through death and the consequent withdrawal of capital from business; above all, large discounts, running over a series of years, made to the principal houses in hopes of escaping the inevitable. The blow fell principally on the merchant class, though it was felt, and felt keenly, to the utmost limits of the island. The one institution that stood firm was the Savings Bank, a government institution. The crisis was eased by a loan opportunely negotiated by the Receiver-General, the Hon. Mr. Bond, and by assistance obtained from the Imperial Government through the medium of the Governor, Sir H. H. Murray.

The late railway deal, which, when it became known, caused no less astonishment among the Newfoundland electors than it did in this country, recalls to mind the drastic measure Nova Scotia took to get rid of her mines in early days, when the fishery interest and the prejudices it is wont to engender were all-powerful. A railway which ran from end to end of the island and cost thirteen million dollars, which, though debarred from continental traffic as yet, had substantial trade of a local kind, was sold to the contractor for one million! Lest he should be exposed to fear of loss, the dry-dock in St. John's, the government telegraph lines, and three million acres of the ungranted lands of the colony, mines included, were thrown into the bargain. So eager was the Legislative Council to close the deal that it pushed the bill through in ten minutes, beating its own best record. As in the case of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland will, no doubt, have to resume her lands and works, accrued

rights being duly respected. In the meantime, we may hope the course of development will not be stayed, and that lands, mines, and railway will be turned to profitable account.

## VIII

The assets of the island, her means of subsistence, recuperation, and advance, may be noticed under three headings: the sea, the soil, the subsoil.

*The Sea.*—Newfoundland statistics are framed to show the export value and volume of the fisheries, but not the actual production. This is estimated by the Rev. Dr. Harvey, whose books have done so much to make the island known, at \$7,000,000; others put it at \$8,000,000. The larger figure may be the more accurate for this reason: the fish exports average \$5,750,000, while the home consumption is large, and can scarcely be less than \$10 per head per year. As in other industries, fluctuations occur from year to year, but, if you reckon by decades, the returns show a very marked constancy back to 1824. The physical foundation of that constancy we have already seen: the unfailing onflow of the Northern current, and the enormous treasures of food supply with which it is laden.

The chief fishery is that of cod, and the annual average export is, as I have said, 1,295,000 quintals of 112 lbs. The average value of the quintal in the home market is \$2.75. In 1895-96 the export was 1,436,083 quintals, and for the year following, 1,135,817. The cod swarms upon the coast at three periods of summer, well marked by shoals or sculls of bait to-day as they were in Whitbourne's time: "The one of them follows on the herrings, the other on the capelin, which is a fish like the smelt; the third follows on the squid, which is a fish something like a cuddell." Curing



consists of salting and sun-drying. When culled and packed, the fish is sent mostly to warm climates and Latin peoples. Brazil, Portugal, Italy, and Spain are Newfoundland's best customers: the first took last year to the value of \$1,288,728; the second, \$753,258; the third, \$172,875; and the last, \$125,262. The trade is conducted in the shipping of the colony. Those who take an interest in the balance of trade theory may be concerned to know that the imports from these countries for 1898 in the order given were as follows: \$110,000, \$15,171, \$2436, \$39,538.

Next in importance is the lobster-fishery, which is of late date but rapid development, and gives employment to about 4500 persons. The exports of 1898 were 61,951 cases, valued at \$619,510. Steps are being taken to guard the industry carefully by prescribing zones and seasons, protecting the young, securing careful packing in well-tinned cans. As there is a ready and expanding market both in this country and the United States, the care shown will redound to the benefit of the persons engaged and the advantage of the colony as a whole.

The seal-fishery, once second, now takes third place. Some years ago seals were commonly taken on shore; then small schooners and brigantines were employed in their pursuit, the proceeds being divided in shares; now steamers are used, and have to go long distances. The number of seals in the North Atlantic would seem to be decreasing. The value of the oil, formerly much prized in lighthouses, has fallen of late years, owing chiefly to the supply of petroleum. On the other hand, the price of the skins has risen so that, in a term of years, the moneyed worth of the industry appears fairly constant in the Newfoundland statistics. The catch of 1896 was abnormal, and reached the sum of \$602,529. The returns for 1897 and 1898 respectively, \$363,467 and \$346,027, show the general mean.

The herring industry is suffering an eclipse. Twenty or thirty years ago one might see in the harbour of Montreal 90,000 to 100,000 barrels of Newfoundland pickled herring of the large variety found in Labrador. To-day you will scarcely find a barrel. One reason for the change is, that the consumption of salt-fish of any kind is decreasing in North America. Again, it was said, whether rightly or wrongly I cannot tell, that, while the quality of the fish itself was excellent, its assortment, pickling, and packing left much to be desired. Measures are now taken to do away with these defects; so that, with careful selection, assiduous attention, and distinctive branding, this branch of trade may reassume a profitable status. That which gives the Scotch producers their control over European markets to-day, surpassing in this respect their former masters, the Dutch, is not a better raw material, if one may use the term, but an improved method of handling which results in a superior commodity. One may add that the more popular methods of preparation by kippering and smoking, or with oil or vinegar, have not to any large extent been introduced into Newfoundland. They have not heretofore come within the bounds of the fishery-system. Then as to the shore-herring, while shoals of the finest quality, affording a broad basis for a rich and extensive business, haunt the bays of north and south, especially Fortune Bay, in countless numbers, they are practically profitless, and are used merely for the purpose of bait. The same remark applies to the daintiest table-fish in North American waters, at once the most delicate and prolific, the capelin. A suitable means of preparation or preservation is still a desideratum. The statistical value of the herring in 1896 was \$131,292; in 1897, \$102,176; and in 1898, \$100,913.

Salmon sells in St. John's during the season for twopence a pound. Its price in London seldom falls

below one and sixpence. Do you not wonder that some enterprising individual does not take advantage of the margin? Meantime, it is pickled according to the fashion of our ancestors, and shipped in tierces. The export of 1896 was valued at \$66,343; of 1897, at \$90,269; and of 1898, at \$49,798.

Twenty years ago, 400 carcasses of frozen mutton were exported from Australia as an experiment, and the experiment was but a partial success. So great has since been the improvement in cold storage and speedy transit that, in 1898, the Australias and New Zealand landed in England  $4\frac{1}{2}$  million carcasses in excellent condition. Preservation by way of cold is as applicable to fish as to mutton, beef, butter, and fruits. Newfoundland will find in this country an almost unlimited market at the highest price for fresh cod, salmon, lobsters, halibut, capelin, herring, trout. In that event, we shall see the old trade revived in a new form.

The question that is now engaging the attention of earnest men in Newfoundland is not merely how particular branches of the fishery industry shall be developed, but a broader problem, what shall take the place of the supply system as that system supplanted the ship-fishery. A movement towards a cash basis is a welcome feature of the time, and its wide expansion cannot but be beneficial. At the same time, if the past be a guide for the future, experience tells us that industries of this kind have generally been prosecuted by some form of combination rather than by isolated action. The query then arises for practical consideration, may not some form of co-operation among fishermen be devised suitable to the present need? Such a form, for instance, as has enabled the farmers of Denmark to gain and retain control of the dairy market of this country; or those of Canada, so to expand and improve the manufacture of cheese that it

stands at or near the head of the Dominion's exports; or those of Ireland, to bring about an industrial transformation in that part of the United Kingdom. But, whatever step is taken, "the old order changeth, giving place to new." Already, the new order is set on a broader basis than the old. The inauguration of the Fishery Bureau, a short time since, under Mr. Neilsen, was a great step in advance. Much indifference has been awakened, much opposition overcome, much good work accomplished as an augury of better things: in the utilisation of waste, at once purifying the waters and fructifying the land; in the improvement of secondary products, such as cod-liver oil, common oil, and glue; the preservation of fresh bait; the preparation of the catch for market; experimental propagation of fish, of cod at Dildo, of lobsters in seventy-six stations throughout the island; above all, in the patient and continued study of the biological and hydrographical conditions of commercial fish-life in the locality; thus bringing the results of science to bear on the material welfare of the people.

*The Soil and Subsoil.*—I make no sub-heading for manufactures, for they are yet in their early infancy. Some steps have been, and are being taken with success in cordage-making, founding, tanning, cabinet-making, and that prime necessity for the fisheries, the manufacture of ship-biscuit. Their augury for the future exceeds by much their present realisation. Indeed, one may say that, outside the fishing industry and the export and import trade incidental to it, Newfoundland is one of the youngest of the colonies. Both in respect to the soil and the subsoil, the words of Hakluyt, written in 1600 and commenting on the Act of Edward VI., still hold good: "By this Act it appeareth, that the trade out of England to Newfoundland was common and frequented about the beginning of the raigne of Edward the sixth, namely,



in the year 1548; and it is much to be marveled that, by the negligence of our men, the countrey in all this time hath bene no better searched." The efficient causes of it we have considered: prohibition in centuries that are past, the practical lien on the fisherman's labour which the supply system enforced in later times.

A detailed and scientific survey of the island for agricultural purposes and as a guide to settlers, setting forth the nature of the soil in every section, quarter-section, and lot on the American and Canadian plan is yet to be made. The energies of the authorities have been heretofore directed to the coast, and the coastal surveys, begun by the famous navigator Captain Cook, are and have been of exceptional excellence. According to the most reliable account I can find, one-third of the island, or 14,000 square miles, consists of lakes, ponds, and rivers; of the balance, and about a third, 9000 square miles, or five and three-quarter million acres, is adapted for farming, a considerable portion of it being forest land where white and yellow pine, red, white, and black spruce, larch and fir, white and yellow birch, white and black ash, with varieties of poplar flourish. Only 179,215 acres were under cultivation at the date of the last census. The returns reached an aggregate of \$1,562,000 for the year, or say \$10 an acre. If to this you add the estimated value of cattle and domestic animals, the total agricultural asset realised in 1891 was \$2,295,000. The prospect before the farmers is a good one, for the home produce does not equal the home consumption. The customs returns for 1897-98 show an import of nearly a million dollars worth of distinctively agricultural products, easily produceable on the island: as vegetables of all kinds, poultry, eggs, butter and cheese, hay and oats, horses, cattle and beef, sheep and mutton, swine, pork, ham and bacon. On the

other hand, the export of lumber and wood-pulp exhibits a gratifying increase, while the total value of the products of the soil sent abroad amounted to about \$50,000.

The Geological Department, under the conduct of Mr. Howley, has been active, especially of late years. Many varieties of mineral substances have been found in large quantities, as marbles, limestones, barytes, gypsum, brick-clays, roofing-slates, granite, whetstones, mica. Considerable deposits of petroleum have likewise been discovered. The precious metals, gold, silver, nickel, molybdenum occur, but, so far as is yet known, only in small quantities. Lead has been worked with success for several years. The principal ores and minerals are as follows:—

Asbestos is one of the most widely-distributed, and, as experts are beginning to believe, one of the most profitable treasures of Newfoundland in respect both of quantity and quality. It has been worked, but as yet the production is small.

Coal measures traverse the island from the west coast in a north-easterly direction, and intersect the line of railway at many points. Several of the deposits are of lignite, but anthracite and bituminous coal of very fine quality are both found. One outcrop on the western shore is reported to have a thickness of 27 feet, and to contain approximately 25,000,000 tons. Special inducements have been given by the Legislature for the production of Newfoundland coal.

Conception Bay possesses a variety of hematite which yields on analysis 50 to 62 per cent. of metallic iron. The quantity estimated to be in sight on Belle Isle island is 40,000,000 tons. They are being worked by the Nova Scotia Iron Company, and preparations for development on a large scale are being made by local and Canadian capitalists. In the north, near the Exploits, there is found an iron pyrites, which returns

58 per cent. of sulphur. The export of iron ore, including manganese and arsenical, for 1898 was \$134,622.

Newfoundland ranks sixth among the copper-producing countries of the world. The ore, for the most part, is a beautiful sulphuret, and contains from 8 to 12 per cent. of pure copper. The chief deposits are found in serpentines which, though not completely searched, are known to stretch across the island in a belt about forty miles wide. The actual export of copper, including ore, for 1898, chiefly to the United Kingdom, was \$401,332.

The total value of the mineral exports for the ten years ending the 30th of June 1899, was \$7,829,158.

I append a table which gives a statistical outline of the financial condition and trade of the island.

The oldest colony has encountered many vicissitudes of fortune and risen victorious over many disasters. She was, she is, and will continue to be the centre of the North American fishing industry, but henceforth under brighter auspices and with a more hopeful outlook toward the future. The time has gone by when she can be forbidden full control over her territory or free access to her continent. By due cultivation of her resources on land and sea, by the ever-widening diffusion of education among her people, her growth and continued prosperity will be assured. In due time, I have no doubt, she will take her place in the great Canadian union by the side of her sister provinces, and help onwards that grander combination which the future still hides from view, but to which we all aspire—the corporate union of the British peoples throughout the world.

## TABLE

*Public Debt :—*

1898 . . . . \$16,248,522.05, or \$77.37 per head.

*Revenue :—*

Average for the last six years . . . . \$1,675,000  
 Estimate for 1899-1900 . . . . 1,841,400

*Expenditure :—*

For 1897 . . . . . 1,865,810  
 „ 1898 . . . . . 2,357,710  
 „ 1899 . . . . . 2,025,417  
 Estimate for 1899-1900 . . . . 1,820,000

*Interest Account :—*

Payable in London—	1898-99.	1899-1900.
3 % bonds . . . .	\$47,450.00	\$47,450.00
3½ % „ . . . .	102,940.00	228,672.50
4 % „ . . . .	207,439.99	208,293.33
Sinking Fund (58 Vict. c. 13)	27,740	27,740
Management, &c. . . .	4,794	3,500
	<hr/> \$479,363.99	<hr/> \$515,655.83

*Payable in St. John's—*

4 % bonds . . . .	\$49,550.54	\$81,345.05
3½ % „ . . . .	77,019.60	60,115.20
	<hr/> \$126,570.14	<hr/> \$141,461.25

*Distribution—*

Interest on Funded Debt . . . .	\$625,877.08
Sinking Fund . . . .	27,740
Management charges . . . .	3,500
	<hr/> \$657,117.08

*Trade of 1898.*

	Exports.	Imports.
Total . . . . .	\$5,226,933	\$5,188,863
United Kingdom . . . .	1,355,920	1,519,253
British Colonies . . . .	909,299	1,930,780
United States . . . .	424,671	1,671,134



*Shipping of 1898.*

		No.	Tons.
Sailing	{ cleared . . .	979	80,209
	{ entered . . .	1244	101,863
Steam	{ cleared . . .	365	368,619
	{ entered . . .	445	400,313

## Ships on register of colony, 1898—

Sailing . . . . .	2391	100,521
Steam . . . . .	38	8,653
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	2429	109,174

*Education, 1897.*

No. of schools . . . . .	625
No. of pupils on roll . . . . .	32,207
Expenditure . . . . .	\$154,438.07

## BERMUDA

BY COLONEL E. C. S. MOORE, R.E.

BERMUDA is represented on the map of the world by a very small dot in latitude  $32^{\circ} 15' N.$  and longitude  $64^{\circ} 51' W.$ ; the actual area of the land being about  $19\frac{1}{4}$  square miles, the extreme length 25 miles, and greatest breadth,  $2\frac{1}{4}$  miles : distance from England, 2970 miles. The restricted area of the island is, however, no criterion of its value to the Empire. For years this has been overlooked, but now that wiser counsels prevail and the enormous advantages conferred by the possession of sea-power have been so ably demonstrated by Admiral Colomb, R.N., Captain Mahan of the United States Navy, and other authorities, the present war in South Africa emphasises the teaching of the naval experts, for without the undisputed supremacy of England at sea it would have been impossible for her to have undertaken it with any prospect of final success. The nation has at last awoke to the fact that the possession of coaling stations capable of becoming secure bases for the operations of our fleets in all parts of the world, is a matter of real vital importance, not only for the maintenance of our supremacy for imperial purposes, but to secure the very existence of the nation as a separate unit in the great struggle for existence.

Amongst the numerous outposts of Great Britain all over the world in which a fresh interest has thus been aroused, the little island which is one of the oldest of our colonies has not passed unnoticed.

The geographical position of Bermuda in the Atlantic Ocean is one of extreme isolation, the nearest land being Cape Hatteras in North Carolina, which is 580 miles distant. Thus it stands in solitary grandeur quite distinct from either the West Indies or America. A very common mistake which is made is the addition of the words "West Indies" to the Bermuda address. This is liable to cause very considerable delay in transmission, as there is an island in that group called Barbuda, to which such letters are thus sometimes diverted. America is a still more common affix used to specify the locality of the island; but it is not only wrong but quite unnecessary. There are many people in America who, no doubt, would concur in viewing the island as a fragment of the States, as evidenced by a book entitled "Stolen America: A Story of Bermuda," by Isabel Henderson Floyd, New York: Cassell Publishing Co. Its history, however, from the earliest records establishes the claim of Bermuda to possession from the Old World rather than from the New.

The extraordinary strategic value of Bermuda as a naval and military station is evidenced by the very fact that it is so isolated, there being no other island within hundreds of miles of it that could be utilised as an offset to it, and its central position with reference to the whole of the North American coast from Newfoundland to Florida and the West Indies is quite unique; for if we take the island as a centre, and with a radius of from 700 to 1000 miles, we find it commands the whole of this enormous coast-line, washed by the Atlantic, as well as the outer fringe of the West Indies.

The discovery of Bermuda followed closely on that of America, but it is not very clear who was the original discoverer. It is known from records which exist that Juan de Bermudez visited the island in 1515, when conveying Gonzales Ferdinando d'Oviedo home from the West Indies, and it is generally assumed

that his name was given to the island on this occasion ; but there is evidence which proves it to have been known before this date, as in one of the copies of a book printed in 1511, the "*Legatio Babylonica*" of Peter Martyr, is a map of these regions with an island named *La Bermuda* plainly inserted on it. Juan de Bermudez may have discovered it on some previous voyage, or its original discovery may have been due to some other navigator with a similar name, for it is very strange that Oviedo in his narrative says nothing about its discovery, but speaks of "the island of Bermuda, otherwise called *Garza*," on which some of his party apparently landed on the occasion of his homeward voyage with Juan de Bermudez, as already mentioned. His stay was apparently of short duration, and from his description he must have anchored in "five fathom hole" near St. George's, and gives the dimensions of the group fairly accurately.

Herrera in his "*Historia General*" (Madrid, first edition, 1601) says that an attempt to colonise the island of Bermuda was made in 1527 by Hermando or Ferdinando Camelo, a Portuguese, but it came to nothing. In Churchill's "*Collection of Voyages*" the date is given as 1552. There is a local belief that the figures 1543, and some initials which look like a monogram of F and T with a cross after them, which are to be seen cut on a rock facing the sea in Smith's Parish, are mementoes of this visit ; the monogram certainly cannot stand for F.C., and the site chosen for the record seems scarcely suitable for commemorating such an event. The rock, in which the inscription must have been deeply cut in the first instance, is hard, but when seen by the writer showed evident signs of wear and tear from age and exposure.

As regards the name of the island, Herrera states that the "island was called Bermuda or *La Garza* (the Heron), because the captain who discovered it was



called Juan Bermudez, and his vessel *La Garza* (the Heron). It is a small island, and not very high, having a ridge in the middle, and a vast quantity of land and sea birds. It is in  $33^{\circ}$ , and always covered with clouds." The name *La Garza* must have soon died out, as it is scarcely met with anywhere else, so it could never have been widely adopted.

The hogs so often referred to as existing on the island may have been landed by Bermudez, or owe their origin to the numerous wrecks which took place on the coast.

Bermuda is constantly associated with shipwreck, and earned very early an evil reputation on account of the severe storms which occur in the neighbourhood, and the danger to navigation caused by the extensive reefs which encircle the islands. These reefs, which are only partly visible at low water, are entirely covered at high tide, and extend for about seven miles to the north of the island near St. George's, and seven miles to the westward of Wreck Hill on the west extremity of Somerset. The island also lies very low, so that it is often difficult to make the land; and ships even nowadays notwithstanding the improved means of navigation sometimes miss it, not discovering the mistake until they are fifty miles to the southward. In the case even of steamers constantly visiting the islands, the navigating officer spends many an anxious hour on the bridge before he picks up the Gibb's Hill light. Of course in the early days to which we are referring no lighthouses existed, and the ships voyaging between Europe and the West Indies found it necessary to give Bermuda a wide berth; the dread thus inspired caused the Spanish sailors to call the group the 'Isles of Devils.'

Numbers of wrecks no doubt took place on the reefs, involving total loss of all on board, and of which no trace would ever be found. A French ship is known

to have been wrecked there between 1560 and 1570, the greater part of the crew escaping safely to land, where they managed to build a boat from the materials of their ship, and escaped in it to Newfoundland. Another French ship, commanded by M. de la Barbotière, sailed from Laguna, in Hispaniola, on the 30th November 1593, and on its homeward voyage was "cast away upon the north-west part of the Isle of Bermuda about midnight, the pilots making themselves to noone to be to the southward of the island twelve leagues." The account of the wreck is given by an English seaman, Henry May, who was a passenger on board the French ship. He was about five months on the island, during which time "a small barke of some eighteen tons" was built with timber cut from the cedar trees in the island; the whole party managed to escape in it, and after many adventures they were taken on board an English ship near the banks of Newfoundland, and May landed safely at Falmouth in August 1594. In his narrative May speaks of the existence of high cliffs where the wreck took place as existing seven leagues from the mainland, and a map published in 1625 shows three distinct islands along the line of the northern reefs. The North Rock, which stands about  $14\frac{1}{2}$  feet high, and a few smaller ones near it are the solitary survivors of these cliffs and islands, and these last vestiges will soon go the way of the rest unless something is done to preserve them, as from the evidence of sketches made about twenty years ago a great alteration has taken place in their shape, the action of the sea having undercut them very considerably. It has been suggested that the disappearance of these islands mentioned by May is due to gradual subsidence, but it is more than probable that they have fallen victims to the encroachments of the sea, as the heaviest seas roll in from the north and west; the preservation of the remainder now known as

Bermuda is thus due to the existence of the reefs which have been left, and which form a natural breakwater.

May describes the island as being divided into broken islands, and this is the impression it conveys at the present day; that it is but one island in reality, which has been cut up by the inroads of the sea. The gaps between the principal divisions are very small, and have for the most part been bridged, and when the Somerset-Watford Bridge is built the old continuity, for all practical purposes, will be restored. It appears therefore most suitable to retain the old name of Bermuda rather than follow the example given in some books in speaking of the island as "the Bermudas"; it may be pedantically correct to do so, but I think the old name has a great deal in its favour, especially as it is in common use in the island.

We find the evil character of Bermuda referred to by Sir Walter Raleigh in his description of the discovery of Guiana in 1595, where he says: "The channel of Bahama, coming from the West Indies, can not be passed in the winter, and when it is at its best, it is a perillous and a fearefull place. The rest of the Indies for calmes, and diseases very troublesome, and the Bermudas a hellish sea for thunder, lightening, and stormes. This very year (1595) there were seuenteen sayle of Spanish shippes lost in the channel of Bahama, and the *Great Phillip*, like to have sunke at the Bermudas, was put back to Saint Juan de Puerto Rico" (p. 96).

The Sieur de Champlain, who sighted Bermuda about the year 1600, speaks of it in much the same style, for after describing the Bahama Channel, he continues: "On quitting the said channel we came near to Bermuda, a mountainous island, which it is difficult to approach on account of the dangers which surround it. It almost always rains there, and thunders so often that it seems as if heaven and earth were about to

come together. The sea is very tempestuous round the said island, and the waves as high as mountains" (*Hakluyt Society*, 1859, p. 46).

A more intimate acquaintance with Bermuda was brought about by the shipwreck of Sir George Somers in the *Sea Venture* on one of the reefs, near what is now the town of St. George's; the reef is still called Sea Venture Reef. The wreck was occasioned by a violent storm, which the writer of a tract, published by advice and direction of the Council of Virginia in 1610, describes in the following words: "True it is, that when Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, and Captain Newport were in the height of  $27^{\circ}$  and the 24th July 1609, there arose such a storm as if Jonas had been flying unto Tarshish; the heavens were obscured, and made an Egyptian night of three daies perpetuall horror; the women lamented, the hearts of the passengers failed, the experience of the sea captaines was amased, the skill of the marriners was confounded, the ship most violently leaked, and though two thousand tunne of water by pumping, from Tuesday noone to Friday noone was discharged, notwithstanding the ship was half filled with water and those which laboured to keepe others from drowning were half drowned themselves in labouring. But God that heard Ionas crying out of the belly of hell, he pittied the distresses of his servants: For behold, in the last period of necessitie Sir George Summers discryed land, which was by so much the more joyful by how much their danger was despairefull. The islands on which they fell were the Bermudos, a place hardly accessible through the enuironing rocks and dangers: notwithstanding they were forced to runne their ship on shoare, which through God's providence fell between two rockes that caused her to stande firme and not immediately to be broken, God continuing his mercie vnto them, that with their long Boats they transported



to land before night their companie, men, women, and children, to the number of one hundred and fiftie; they carried to shoare all the provision of vnspent and vspoyled victuals, all their furniture and tacking of the ship, leauing nothing but bared ribs as a pray vnto the ocean."

The ship in which Sir George Somers was thus wrecked was part of a second expedition of nine ships fitted out by the Virginia Company for the purpose of colonisation in America. The original patent was granted by James I. in 1606; the first batch of colonists being despatched the following year. The fleet which accompanied Sir George Somers and the two other leaders was not sent out until 1609, after the reconstitution of the Company.

The disaster to the *Sea Venture* detained Sir George Somers in Bermuda for several months, during which time their fears of the "enchanted island" appear to have been entirely dissipated, and in the reports which have been preserved most glowing descriptions of the place and its capabilities are given. They quitted the island on the 10th May in two small vessels built out of the remains of their ship, in which they arrived safely in Virginia, but only to find the colony in a state of starvation.

It was natural under these circumstances that Sir George Somers should look with wistful eyes to "the most plentiful place that ever I came to, for fishe, Hogges, and flowle." Being a man of great daring and determination of character, he accordingly proposed to return thither for supplies. He succeeded in reaching the island, but only to die there. His body was embalmed, and taken to England for burial by his nephew, Captain Matthew Somers, but his heart is said to have been buried at St. George's. The new name of "Somers Islands" was given to the island, which with St. George's and Somers Seat or Somerset.

tend to perpetuate the memory of this intrepid mariner.

The account of this memorable wreck is believed to have inspired Shakespeare in the "Tempest," where he refers to the "still-vex'd Bermoothes." The tide of prejudice against Bermuda had, however, now turned in consequence of the rose-coloured accounts brought home by the survivors of the expedition. The island was looked upon as a favourable spot for the disappointed Virginia settlers to turn their attention to for necessary relief.

The rights of the original charter of the Virginia Company only extended so as to include islands within 100 miles of that plantation, but in 1612 this right was extended to 300 leagues. The Virginia Company pretended that Bermuda was included in that right, and a section of the Company actually purchased the "pretended right of all the Company" to the Somers Islands, and proceeded to appropriate the neglected discovery of Juan de Bermudez, notwithstanding the remonstrances raised by the Spaniards, who claimed possession in virtue of a Papal Bull conferring on them the sole right to the Indies.

The Virginia Company sent out a party of fifty settlers under the charge of Mr. Richard Moore, a ship's carpenter, who appears to have been a very able and resolute man. He was appointed "deputie Governor for the said Plantation" for three years, and on his arrival on the 11th July 1612, found the three men—Carter, Chard, and Waters—that had been left behind by Somers in good health and flourishing. Upon receiving favourable reports from them, he employed them to pilot his ship in through the reefs, and landed on Smith's Island, afterwards removing to the island now called St. George's. These three men gave him a good deal of trouble in trying to hide a quantity of ambergris which they had found when alone on the

island. He also had to quell mutiny and discontent amongst his followers. He apparently ruled with a great deal of tact and forbearance, and on the occasion of two Spanish ships attempting to enter the channel he fired on them, and frightened them away; probably they were unaware that the island was inhabited.

Several hundred emigrants were sent out to him in successive batches shortly after this, but seem to have overtaxed the resources of the island, and as a consequence they all suffered from want and privation. One consignment certainly brought relief in the shape of a supply of potatoes, but as an offset a plague of rats was inaugurated, which devastated the islands.

On the conclusion of his term of office Moore sailed for England, leaving a council of six in charge, who were to rule in turn.

Daniel Tucker, an early settler in Virginia, was sent out by the Bermuda Company as Governor of the Somers Islands in 1616. At this time the division of the islands into eight tribes, with a reserve not exceeding a fourth to defray the public charges of the Company, in accordance with the terms of the letters patent, had already been effected by Richard Norwood, a surveyor, who had been amongst the original settlers, but the further subdivision of each of these tribes into fifty shares of twenty-five acres each had not been completed. This was now done under the direction of the new Governor, and it took three years to accomplish it, the actual possession of the shares in each tribe being settled by lot drawn in England. The tribes were named after some of the leading members of the Company, such as Devonshire, Hamilton, Pembroke, Paget, Southampton, Warwick, Sandys, Smith's, &c., St. George's and some of the small islands near it being reserved for public purposes; thus nine parishes were formed, which still constitute the basis for the political and ecclesiastical arrangements of the islands.

The Governor was assisted by a Council composed principally of official members, and General Sessions were held twice a year, each tribe sending six representatives and the common land twelve. In the case of the General Assembly the Governor and Council were included, and the tribes sent four representatives and the common land eight. The Assembly was held once in two years, the first being in 1620, one year after a similar institution had been organised for the plantation in Virginia. The population seems to have grown very rapidly—from 2000 to 3000 in 1629 to 8000 in 1679, including slaves. Penal slavery is first mentioned in 1617, when a white man and also a negro were condemned to it as a punishment. Indian slaves were introduced in 1652. There were also some white bond-servants, who appear to have been political prisoners, both Irish and Scotch, who had been sent to the plantations to get them out of the way.

The struggle between King and Parliament produced to some slight extent similar political and religious discord in the islands; the Puritans were denied liberty of worship, every effort being made to maintain uniformity with the Established Church, and, notwithstanding the introduction of some modifications, the Independents seceded in 1643. In 1645 the Long Parliament established freedom of worship in the islands. After this, from 1660, a dead set was made against the Quakers, every effort being made to get rid of them. “Bisse’s ‘History of the Quakers’ gives an instance in 1670 of the frantic violence with which that provoking sect was opposed. Their fearless and often extravagant denunciation of what they disapproved; their attitude of passive resistance; their repudiation of civil obligations and duties and external marks of respect, such as uncovering in Court; their singularities of attire and phraseology aroused evil passions in that rough age which it is difficult now to quite



understand" ("Memorials of the Bermudas," Lefroy, vol. ii. p. 301). Several proclamations and Acts were passed against them, and they were prohibited from landing on the islands; they seem to have been entirely suppressed.

In order to obtain still further freedom in religious matters, an attempt was made by some of the Bermudians to establish a colony in Cigatio or Segatoo, one of the West Indian Islands, to which the name of Eleutheria or Eleuthera was given, the object set forth being that "every man might enjoy his own opinion or religion without control or question." This settlement appears to have turned out a failure.

The Turk's Islands, so called from the prevalence of a species of cactus (*Melocactus comaneri*), commonly called Turk's head in the West Indies, was at one time connected in a very special manner with Bermuda. The islands lie due north of St. Domingo, and their value for the production of salt is claimed to have been first discovered by the people of Bermuda, and they appear to have practically taken possession of them about 1673. Some of the Bermuda planters were in the habit of taking their slaves with them to Turk's Islands every year to make salt, between 1678 and 1710 without any interference; but at the latter date the Spaniards attacked them and drove them away, being in their turn driven out by a privateering expedition sent from Bermuda. Warfare on a small scale was carried on between them for the next forty years. The French appeared on the scene in 1764; the houses and effects of the Bermuda planters were destroyed and the salt-makers carried off as prisoners. An indemnity was afterwards paid for this. Notwithstanding the protests of the Bermudians, the ownership of the Turk's Islands was claimed by the British Crown, and it was decided that they belonged to the Bahamas, the Government of

which taxed the salt supply. This was felt to be a grievance of vital importance to Bermuda for many years, but it has long ceased to have any commercial importance to the colony.

The manner in which the Bermuda planters were controlled by the company became at length so oppressive that numerous complaints were made; their produce was received at a fixed price by the company, and stores sent to the island were sold to them at any price the company chose to put upon them. Very naturally the planters under such circumstances desired the introduction of free trade, so that they might dispose of their produce in the most advantageous markets for their own benefit. Petitions were accordingly sent in, and eventually legal proceedings being taken, the charter of the company was abolished and Bermuda passed under the control of the Crown. There is but little to record after this in the political history of the islands but constant differences of opinion and struggles between the Governor and the Assembly.

Tobacco, which had been one of the most paying commodities raised in Bermuda, was soon beaten out of the field by the West Indian competition, and agriculture generally seems to have been for the most part abandoned by the colonists during the last century and the beginning of the nineteenth in favour of coasting trade between Newfoundland and the West Indies, including Turk's Islands; cod was brought down and salt taken back in exchange. There was also some considerable trade with American ports. The small sloops used for this purpose were built of cedar grown on Bermuda, and the islanders seem to have been very skilful in their use. They engaged in whale-fishing on their own coasts and also in distant seas, but the war between England and France put an end to the latter industry, and it is very seldom that a

whale is now seen near the island. The colony possessed a militia in which every adult, including slaves, was bound to serve, and in 1710, in their own armed ships, drove away the Spaniards who attacked the salt manufacturers in the Turk's Islands as already mentioned. They also fitted out ships for the protection of their own coasts against French privateers. The Bermudians have always had close bonds of friendship with the American colonies; this was due partly to relationship; they found also in America a mart for their produce. When the War of Independence broke out, a large quantity of powder was stolen from the island and found its way into American hands.

The prosperity of the islands began to decline from this time, and notwithstanding occasional revivals, it never returned. In 1815 it became for a short space an entrepôt where West Indian produce could be shipped by vessels from the United States, but the introduction of free trade did away with even this source of profit.

The defence of the colony in its early days was entirely neglected by the Home authorities, neither gunpowder nor warlike stores of any kind being provided between the years 1701 and 1738. The "King's Independent Company" of fifty men, however, was raised in 1728. According to the St. George's parish records, traces of a Royal Garrison Battalion are found as early as 1779, and of Royal Artillery in 1783: the first British regiment was the 47th, seven companies of which landed from the Bahamas in 1797. The council continued to provide guns and gunpowder in 1782, and the colony possessed a sloop and gun-boat of its own in 1795.

Bishop Berkeley in 1725 was so much impressed with the accounts of Bermuda and its situation that he brought out a scheme for a missionary college, which he described as a "proposal for the better sup-

plying of churches in our foreign plantations, and for converting the savage Americans to Christianity by a college to be erected in the Summer Islands, otherwise called the Isles of Bermuda.”

The scheme failed through lack of funds; it was afterwards revived by the Rev. W. C. Dowding in 1853, and a small trust fund raised for the purpose.

Bermuda has enjoyed representative institutions almost from the date of its being first colonised; the executive being, however, appointed and controlled by the Home Government, is independent of the local legislature. The Governor appointed by the Crown is a general officer who also commands the garrison; he is assisted by a council of six, some of whom are *ex officio* members, the others being appointed by the Governor.

The Legislature consists of the Governor, the Legislative Council, and the House of Assembly; the former or upper house has three official and six unofficial members; the nine parishes return four members each to the House of Assembly, the electoral qualification being the possession of freehold property of not less than £60 value, which is raised to £240 for membership of the Assembly. The members of both houses are paid two dollars a day whilst sitting; this is intended to cover expenses, as many of the members live at a distance. The elections for the Assembly are septennial.

The common law of England, supplemented by a number of local acts, is in force in Bermuda, and justice is administered by a chief-justice, two assistant-judges, and three police magistrates.

The seat of Government was originally situated at St. George's, at the north-east extremity of the island, but the interests of merchants and shipowners demanded a business centre farther to the westward, and in 1793 the town of Hamilton in Pembroke



parish was incorporated, and took its name from that of the Governor at the time; in 1815 it replaced St. George's as the seat of government.

A very important event for Bermuda was the decision of the Imperial Government to make it a naval station. Admiral Murray, who gave his name to Murray's Anchorage to the north of St. George's, recommended the construction of a dockyard in 1794: Captain Pinder, R.N., selected Ireland Island for the naval station. Drafts of convicts were sent out to Bermuda by Order-in-Council, June 23, 1824, to be employed on the imperial works; the convict establishment was done away with in 1863. Large sums of money have been spent on the defences of the island, but, as its retention is of the utmost importance, the process will have to be continued to keep up to date with modern requirements. Bermuda is naturally strong on account of its inaccessibility, surrounded as it is with dangerous reefs; but this has been considerably modified by the introduction of steam. There is only one channel, called the "Narrows," by which vessels of any size can enter, and that leads close past the batteries at St. George's; the other channels through the reefs are very narrow and tortuous, so that only small craft can use them, and that only in very fine weather. The main lie of the land is NE. and SW., and approximates in shape to the letter J: the hook, lying towards the west, encloses between itself and a projecting promontory on the main island terminating on Spanish Point, a number of small islands,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\delta$ , &c., some of which are mere rocks; one, however, is large enough to contain the Naval Quarantine Station. The NE. end of Bermuda is considerably broken, and there are large openings in it, such as St. George's Harbour, Castle Harbour, and still farther to the SW., Harrington Sound, which is entirely land-locked, and can only be entered by boats from the

“flats” at high tide. St. George’s was until recently connected with the main island by means of a causeway and a swing bridge. Wooden bridges exist between the remainder of the islands, except between Somerset and Watford Islands, where there is a ferry-boat for vehicles, so that it is possible to drive the whole of the way from St. George’s to Hamilton, and from thence round to Ireland Island, at the point of J, where the dockyard is situated, a total distance of about twenty-nine miles. It has been proposed to bridge the remaining gap in a substantial manner, and it will no doubt be taken in hand soon, as it is not only important from a colonial point of view, but also to enable the dockyard labourers, who mostly reside in Somerset, to get across to their work readily without being detained by bad weather, as during a gale from the west a very heavy sea rolls in through the opening, making it impossible to cross.

The reefs extend from the eastern extremity of St. George’s in a northerly direction for about five miles, and gradually curve off to the westward. At a distance of about eight miles to the northward of the most northern point of St. George’s, the North Rock is reached, to which reference has already been made as being, with the few rocks near it, the sole remains of three islands which formerly existed near and on the site. The North Rock is almost due north of the centre of the group, and from this point the reef extends for about four miles almost due west; bending then sharply to the south-west, it continues until it attains a distance of eight miles to the westward of the Somerset Island, which forms part of the bend of the J; it then turns round to the eastward, closing on the land near Gibb’s Hill; the reef continues from this point parallel with coast-line at a distance of about a third of a mile from it. The reef is not continuous, but consists of wide, broken masses of rock covered

with coral, some of which are only visible at low water. The space inside is not by any means an open-water lagoon, as is met with in the case of many coral islands; the formation is therefore not what is generally understood by an atoll, for the rocks are spread abroad in indescribable confusion, so that it requires the services of skilful pilots who know the reefs well to explore them. Fishermen can only venture out in fine weather, as, when there is any sea on, the reefs are covered with a seething mass of foam; the edge of the reef even in fine weather on the windward side is always marked by a line of breakers.

The rock is composed of a coralline limestone of varying compactness; some portions pulverise very readily, whilst others afford good building material, being easily cut with a saw and worked as required; it is sawn into slabs one inch thick, and used for slating the houses. This merges into a still harder description, which is crystalline in texture and without any signs of animal life; a considerable quantity is found which is distinctly volcanic. The islands consist of collections of small hills, without any definite arrangement, the highest, which is at Gibb's Hill, being only 260 feet in height. The consequence of this is that it has been impossible to construct the roads without making deep cuttings, which at any rate have the advantage of revealing the nature of the strata. The rock comes close to the surface everywhere, and it is found that instead of straight beds either horizontal or with a dip, the strata are bent in short curves of sometimes only a few feet radius, without the slightest order or regularity. The actual surface of the rock displayed by the clean-cut sides is but a continuation of the confusion below; it has the appearance of short, deep waves, coming up to points as if the rock had been a boiling mass, the surface being violently agitated and projected by the

rush of steam, and whilst still in this state the whole would appear to have been suddenly congealed, leaving the projecting crests of the waves to attest the fierceness of the conflict to which they had been subjected. The discoveries of the *Challenger* and also the investigations made by Professor Agassiz, show that Bermuda is not a coral island, built up from unknown depths by the patient industry of the coral insect, but is really the summit of a mountain; and as the coral insect cannot work at a greater depth than eighty fathoms, it is necessary to account for its formation in another way, and the most probable is that the ocean bed for possibly hundreds of miles around was close to the surface, at any rate within the limits assigned for the working powers of the coral insect, which multiplied and increased abundantly, and covered the bottom thickly with its work. If, now, a sudden subsidence took place, the whole of the results of their industry might be swept to the centre of the whirlpool formed at the centre of the subsidence. When in this condition, a similar sudden upheaval, accompanied by volcanic eruption, would compress and consolidate the broken mass of coral resting on it under a pressure of perhaps several thousand feet of water; the shape of the ocean bed would change, as the surface was neared, from concave to convex, thus varying the pressure on every portion of it. The laminæ would probably on this supposition have followed originally the bed of the depression, but this regularity would soon be changed as the upward movement continued, and result in the distortion already described. We are not told what changes took place when God cursed the ground for man's sake, and how He fitted it for man's fallen condition, tempering justice with mercy; for all we know, this mighty change may have taken place then—at any rate the indications point to the formation of Bermuda as the result



of a great convulsion of nature. The islands abound in caves, formed by the washing out of the sand which they once contained; numerous pockets of this kind exist in every direction, and the sand found in them is utilised for building purposes. The principal are Walsingham, Joyce's and Tucker's Island caves; very large stalactites and stalagmites are discovered in them. Large channels are believed to exist under the hills communicating between Harrington Sound and the ocean, as the rise and fall of the tide in this landlocked lake could not otherwise be adequately explained. It is very evident that the existence of such treacherous material and entrances for the seas into the very heart of the islands, is a great assistance to the sea in its destructive action on the coasts. The rock has only a comparatively thin covering of soil varying from a few inches to three and four feet; it is ferruginous, with a total absence of clay. The percentage of iron varies very considerably.

The first visitors describe it as covered thickly with cedar (Juniper) and palmetto down to the water's edge; and although these trees still flourish, yet great clearances have been made—the big cedars are a thing of the past, having been exported in large quantities as well as used up in shipbuilding; the latter trade has now ceased, and only small boats are built. On approaching the islands, the dark hue of the cedars gives it a northern appearance, and the grass-covered hills are a relief and afford a great contrast to Malta. On the occasion of my first going to Bermuda, we were fetched from the trooper in Grassy Bay, the man-of-war anchorage near Ireland Island, in one of the Army Service Corps steamers, and as it came near the main island to the south of Spanish Point, and began to thread its way between the small islands which separate Hamilton Harbour from Port Royal, we could not help exclaiming, "This is like fairyland!"

The coloured pilot hearing the remark, astonished us by saying, in a very pleased voice, "Well, it is called Fairyland!" and this we found afterwards was actually the name of the portion of the island we were looking at: the sea was of a deep transparent blue, reflecting the colour of the rocks and trees beyond; the sky overhead being equally blue, our first impressions of the place were charming, and they were only confirmed by a residence there of four years.

The houses are dotted about in every direction, some at the water's edge, others on the summit of the hills or nestling amongst the trees; the whitewashed walls and roofs, and in some places the large drainage areas, also whitewashed, for the collection of rainwater, are distinctive features of Bermuda.

The scenery is certainly on a small scale, but it is sweetly pretty in many places; the green sward in the glades under the trees reminds one of England; the harbour dotted with small islands is more like lake scenery, omitting the mountains in the background. The drive along the north of Harrington Sound is very hilly, and you look down through the dark overhanging cedars into clear blue water below, which gives the impression of unfathomable depth. Walsingham, where Moore lived, with its familiar calabash tree, is situated between this and Castle Harbour; he visited Bermuda in 1803, having received the appointment of Registrar of the Court of Admiralty in the island. He remained, however, only a few months; the beauty of the island inspired him when he wrote—

"These leafy isles upon the ocean thrown  
Like studs of emerald o'er a silver zone;"

in which he compares them to the "pure isles"—

"Which bards of old with kindly fancy placed  
For happy spirits in th' Atlantic waste."

The following is a good description of the appearance of the sea:—

“Under clear skies or grey, it is alike rich in colour, shading at times from the deepest indigo to ultramarine, to turquoise blue, to delicate apple green up to the cream of the sand. Purple patches show where the coral shoals rise near the surface, and here and there, before the wind or under the shadow of a cloud, will glisten opaline or amethystine tints as if the jewels of the world had been melted in a gigantic crucible and poured out a glimmering flood.

“Out in that wonderful water are Bermuda’s Sea-Gardens—the reefs—outlying her shores for many miles. One may look down in the clear water upon coral shoals as rich in colour as ever a land garden was. There purple sea-fans spread lazy forms; black sea-rods wave; sea-weeds in orange, yellow, pink, brown, and every shade of red creep up between the brainstone and other coral; sea anemones move delicate tentacles; sponges grow, and strange and beautiful fish, like sprites of the underworld, dart in and out” (“Bermuda’s Sunny Isles,” by Mary E. Child, *Godey’s Magazine*, May 1894).

The reefs are overgrown with coral, and it is a strange sight to view the bottom through a water-glass, the movements of the many-coloured fish in and out of their coral grottoes and among the weeds can be plainly seen; there are a great variety, such as the “angel fish,” of a bright blue colour; the “yellow tail,” which is pale azure on the back and pearly white below, with broad bands of yellow along each side; the “spotted snapper,” which also carries those yellow bands, only his body is white, his fins rosy pink, and each flank has a great oval patch of black; rock fish of large size, and many others,—in fact, the reefs support quite a fairy world of their own.

The North Rock is the spot of which Ariel sings to Ferdinand after his shipwreck :—

“ Full fathom five thy father lies ;  
Of his bones are coral made ;  
Those are pearls that were his eyes ;  
Nothing of him that doth fade,  
But doth suffer a sea-change  
Into something rich and strange,  
Sea-nymphs hourly ring his knell,  
Hark ! now I hear them—  
Ding dong, bell.”—(*Tempest*, Act i. sc. 2.)

There was always considerable difficulty in bringing large steamers through the channels between Grassy Bay and Hamilton. This caused great inconvenience and often expense in the transfer of cargo. To obviate this the Colonial Government employed a London firm to dredge the Staggs Channel, which traverses the reef lying between Spanish Point and Ireland Island, and also Two Rock Passage, farther on the way to Hamilton, to a depth of twenty feet at low water and a bottom width of 100 feet. The work, begun in 1894, was completed in 1896. It cost about £40,000, which was raised by the issue of Bermuda Government 4½ per cent. Local Inscribed Stock, with thirty years to run from the 1st September 1893, a sinking fund being provided for its redemption. It is more than probable the Admiralty will find it necessary to still further deepen the Staggs Channel so as to admit men-of-war into Port Royal, which is more commodious and affords a better anchorage in every way than Grassy Bay.

Efforts have been constantly made to get the local legislature to deepen the ship channel into St. George's Harbour, but so far without avail. A good number of small craft discharge there at present, but it is too far off to be of much use for trade purposes until it is connected with the other portions of the island by rail,



and there are considerable difficulties to be overcome before that is accomplished. At present St. George's reminds one of a city of the dead; the prospect must have been much more lively in the old privateering days.

Castle Harbour is entirely given up now as a port. The entrance is very narrow and difficult, and is totally unsuited to the size of modern shipping. The only place where ships could anchor is also a long way from St. George's. Tucker's Town, which is near at hand, only consists of a few scattered houses. The King's Castle and other fortifications which once defended the entrance to Castle Harbour are in ruins, and serve to give an appearance of antiquity to the site. One of the islands near Castle Island is used as a quarantine station by the Colonial Government.

There are neither rivers nor springs on the islands, as the soil and rock are so very porous that, even after the heaviest rain, the ground soon dries. Water for domestic and other purposes has to be caught from the roofs, or specially prepared catchment areas, and stored in tanks. Bermuda has no rainy season, and a drought for five or six weeks is unusual. When it rains exceptionally heavy it is called a "tank day," and is regarded with much favour by the inhabitants, as it soon replenishes the water supply. The annual rainfall is about sixty inches.

The climate of Bermuda is a continual summer, the highest temperature not exceeding  $88^{\circ}$  and the lowest range during the winter months being  $50^{\circ}$  on the average. Frost is unknown, though on one occasion a thermometer on the grass registered  $32^{\circ}$ . The air is naturally damp, being laden with moisture from the sea. This dampness is not, however, injurious, but has the disagreeable effect of producing perspiration which is intensified by the slightest exertion, especially during the summer months. Notwith-

standing this, bicycling, cricket, and football (during the winter) are freely indulged in; lawn tennis is played all the year round.

The extreme purity of the air fully accounts for the healthiness of the climate, and one great charm of the place is that you can live almost all the year round in the open air. The following is Walton's opinion in "The Battle of the Summer Islands":—

"So sweet the air, so moderate the clime,  
None sickly lives, or dies before his time;  
Heaven sure has kept this spot of earth uncurst,  
To show how all things were created first."

There are, however, very few places which bear so indelibly the effect of the curse, and, beautiful as it is, should lead us to estimate better what the paradisaic condition of nature must have been before that event in human history. The climate of Bermuda is relaxing, but the local population live to very advanced ages.

There is an entire absence of uniformity in the Bermuda climate, especially in the winter months. In January, February, and March the weather is unsettled, frequent heavy rains and strong winds corresponding to those being experienced at the time on the American continent, but always of a milder and more agreeable type. The months of November, April, and May are more uniform, and very enjoyable. The hottest months of the year, June and July, are by no means unpleasant, and the beauty of the scene is enhanced during the summer months by the colouring of the flowering trees, which is absent during the other portion of the year. September is the most oppressive month; it is very sultry, due to the absence of wind. October brings cool breezes, which clear the atmosphere and usher in a delightful November. The prevailing winds should be southerly in the summer

and northerly in winter, for comfort at any rate, as a southerly wind in winter is felt immediately.

Ordinary English clothing can be worn during the winter months, but during the summer white clothing is the best. Sunstroke is scarcely ever known, and even in the hottest weather a straw hat is sufficient protection.

The Bermuda Hunt Club was established in 1876, and meetings have been held once or twice a year since that time. The races take place at Shelly Bay on a small circular race-course, the total length of circuit being 905 yards. The meetings are held under the recognised rules of racing as in England. Yachting has been a favourite pastime in Bermuda for many years. At one time intercourse between different places was carried out entirely by water, many of the houses being built close to it, with their sailing boats anchored in snug little bays and nooks near at hand; the only other alternative before the construction of the roads by slave labour being to walk or ride. Mr. Samuel Triscott, on the occasion of his departure from the island after a residence of nearly twenty years, in acknowledging a presentation of a piece of plate said: "In November 1846, under the calabash tree—celebrated as the scene of the poetic reveries of Moore—I was the humble means of proposing the establishment of the Bermuda Yacht Club. About forty names were enrolled; from that moment the club has gone on. We obtained the patronage of the illustrious Prince, the partner of our beloved and gracious Queen, and eventually the permission of the sovereign herself to style the club 'Royal.'" The club—among other cups—has two annually competed for, that of H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh (Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha) and that of H.R.H. the Princess Louise, Marchioness of Lorne. The rig of the Bermuda boats is peculiarly suited to the local conditions;

at one time they had two masts, but now only one stepped well forward and sloping back at an angle of about seventy degrees with the horizontal; they carry a large leg-of-mutton sail and have a staysail and jib. The coloured pilots handle them with great dexterity, and work through rocky passages in a manner to astonish an English yachtsman. Dinghy races are very popular. In the summer months frequent sailing matches take place in the harbours of St. George's and Hamilton, the Great Sound, or Harrington Sound. Rowing races have occasionally been held.

Cricket matches are often played between the garrison and the navy and also with the civilians, both white and coloured teams competing. In addition to the military and naval cricket grounds at Ireland Island, Prospect, and St. George's the civilians also have grounds of their own, and the Saltus Grammar School has one also.

The garrison hold annually the ordinary athletic and aquatic sports, to the latter of which the island offers such special attractions.

The scourge of yellow fever has at intervals decimated the island, the last epidemic being experienced in 1864: it made terrible ravages, especially amongst the coloured population. It is not sporadic, but has always been introduced from outside; it is now guarded against by strict quarantine regulations. Very severe cyclonic disturbances visit the island at times; their influence is often very local and of short duration. The hurricanes of 1839, 1886, and 1899 were, however, of a much more disastrous character: the first and third of these referred to took place in both instances on the 11th and 12th September; the latter is unquestionably the record cyclone for Bermuda, surpassing in violence any previously known.

The *Bermuda Recorder* of Saturday, September



23, 1899, gives the following description of this great hurricane:—

“For several days prior to the night of the 12th, natural indications had not been wanting to show that a storm of considerable magnitude was either approaching or passing these islands. Although the breeze was light, and at times the weather was quite calm, yet the roar of the sea on the south shore breakers was heard all over the island in the still of the evenings, and on Monday evening a lurid sun set with vast masses of rapidly-moving and inky-black clouds betokened a speedy change of the weather. Tuesday morning dawned clear and calm, and on the southern shores of our inland harbours the water was as a mirror, the breeze being light from south-east. Shortly before 2 P.M. the wind veered more easterly, and suddenly swung round southerly to west-north-west, with an opening gust of sufficient violence to drive a moored sail-boat swiftly forwards on her moorings. This was followed in swift succession by further puffs from the same direction with a circular motion, the first of which took the sail-boat referred to above and swung her round with surprising rapidity. Gust followed gust, lifting in sheets of white drift the surface of the previously calm water, and the sea soon dashed on the harbour banks. Rain descended in torrents, but at 2.30 the weather greatly moderated, and no one anticipated the terrible night so soon to close upon the island. During the afternoon the wind veered again to the south-east, and soon after five o'clock in the evening freshened considerably, rendering difficult the crossing of the quarter mile of water between the Hamilton ferry on the north shore of the harbour and the Paget ferry on the southern shore. Barometer indications were looking bad, and preparations were speedily completed to meet the oncoming storm. But the hand of the aneroid barometer moved steadily

down from 29.50 to 29.00. The wind whistled overhead, making us thankful indeed for the existence of a hill to the windward of our premises, the roaring and crashing momentarily increased, and that hand kept on its downward motion—28.50. It cannot be going down lower surely, but yet, by jumps at times, it descended—28.00! down still, so that even those who knew, from practical experience in hurricanes, the readings of the barometer better than ourselves, asked with bated breath: ‘What is coming?’ And yet the hand moved down—down—down—27.90! finally staying its course with 27.85, at two o’clock on the morning of Wednesday. A dead calm soon ensued, lasting about a quarter of an hour, and causing many people to believe the bad weather was gone. Swift from the north-west came the wind, and now those who previously had been under the lee of the hillsides found themselves in a reversed position in this respect—the centre of the cyclone had passed over us—and therefore the reversal so suddenly of the direction of the wind. Until the morning came it was not possible to ascertain damages. Even at six o’clock it was too dark, and the force of the wind and rain so great, that it was barely possible to stand up out of doors. By eight o’clock the weather had moderated sufficiently to enable us to ascertain its dire effects, and reports soon came in by special messengers, to the effect that the Causeway was demolished, the roads impassable except for pedestrians, and telephonic and telegraphic communication entirely down.”

The total damage, including that to the naval and military establishments, is estimated at from £150,000 to £200,000.

Earthquakes are very rarely experienced in Bermuda, but the following incidental notice of one quoted by Lefroy possesses special interest: “Upon the 25th day of June anno 1664, being the Sabbath

day, at 9 of the clock of the forenoon, there was a great and fearfull earthquake, which did shake churches and houses, yea and the hearts of men too " (*Records of Port Royal Parish*).

In more modern times an occasional tremor has at long intervals been noticed.

The islands have for many years been a favourite winter resort for American visitors, but efforts are being made to demonstrate the advantages it possesses over the American climate at other periods of the year as well. The journey from New York takes from two to three days, depending on the weather, and as the steamers generally bring live stock, it does not pay to force them when there is a heavy sea on; this occurs very often when crossing the Gulf Stream.

The agriculture of the islands is in a very backward state, but efforts are being made to ascertain the possibilities of the islands, and to educate the farmers by object lessons. For this purpose a public garden has been established near Hamilton, and a qualified assistant to superintend it has been obtained from Kew. Nearly all the fruit has failed. Figs used to be most plentiful; oranges and peaches also throve well; the former have entirely disappeared. Oranges are represented by a few bitter oranges here and there. Peaches never come to anything, lemons also are fast disappearing, also the avocado or alligator pear (*Persea gratissima*). Whether this is due to want of care or to the introduction of insect pests, it is hard to say. Bananas thrive well, and all varieties of melons. The staple industries are the cultivation of onions, potatoes, tomatoes, and market-garden produce, which are exported during the winter to America in much the same way that early vegetables are supplied to the London market from the Channel Islands. Lily bulbs (*Lilium harrisii*, the Easter lily) and fuchsias are also exported in large quantities, the soil and climate being

particularly favourable to their development. The harvest is during the winter when the crops are generally obtained; nothing is done during the summer, as the ground is too dry.

Very little Bermuda arrowroot (*Maranta arundinacea*) is now grown. A great many of the tropical and subtropical fruits have been tried, and do well when carefully attended to and suitably planted—the custard apple, the sour sap, &c.

The existence of flowering trees is a great feature of Bermuda during the summer, as already mentioned. They include the Pride of India, the Fiddle-wood tree, the Yellow Trumpet (*tecom*, a tribe), the Poinsettia, the Poiniana or Golden Mohur, the Scarlet Cordia. The Oleander flourishes in a marvellous manner; hedges are formed of it twenty and thirty feet high, and the stems grow to a thickness of from eight to nine inches in diameter. They are of every shade, from white to a deep crimson; a hedge of the latter when in full flower shows a regular blaze of colour even when some considerable distance away from it.

Flowers in great variety flourish during the winter; the roses are particularly beautiful, so that it is justly called “the land of the Lily and the Rose.”

Live stock in the shape of cattle and sheep have to be imported for slaughter. The latter do not thrive on the local grass, and so are scarcely ever seen except as mutton. Cows are kept for dairy purposes; poultry thrive and do very well.

The fish supply is very good, and is for the most part caught on the reef. Fish-pots are much used in their capture, and they are kept in tanks on the seashore until wanted. If there is a continuance of bad weather it falls short, and even ceases altogether. Turtle is caught, and can always be obtained once a week.

A great variety of birds is still to be found, many



of them with beautiful plumage. The red bird, the Cardinal Grosbee, locally called the Virginian nightingale, is a small paroquet with brilliant rich plumage; the male is the finer bird, and has a crest. The blue bird, *Sialia Wilsonii*, is of a brilliant blue colour, with a rusty red breast. These birds are decreasing in numbers, being driven away by the common sparrow, which has only lately been introduced in Bermuda with the object of destroying the insects. The cat bird, *Minus carolinensis*, and the chick of the village, *Vireo noveboracensis*; both species will come hopping and scolding within a few feet of an intruder in their native cedar groves; they are resident, and exceedingly numerous. Ground doves, *Columba passerina*, are numerous. Virginian partridge, or *Calinartyz Virginiana*, which is seldom seen; the male makes a noise in spring and summer, shouting "Bob White" in early morning and towards dusk—are amongst the most noticeable. There are a few herons and kingfishers, but the sea birds which existed at one time, according to the earliest records, in such countless numbers, have been sadly thinned, so much so that laws have had to be made for their preservation, as well as for that of the land birds.

Bermuda enjoys perfect immunity from reptiles of every kind, though it is quite possible they may be introduced some day with some beneficial object in view. Toads were in this manner imported only a very few years ago to destroy some of the insect life, but they have spread all over the islands; the climate suits them too well. The enlightened and enterprising importer, who is still alive to witness the success in one way of his experiment, was presented by his grateful admirers with a pie which on opening was found to be full of toads.

The population of the islands, according to the 1891 census, was 15,013, including whites and coloured

in the proportion of two to three; the garrison is additional to this, and varies according to circumstances. At present it may be taken at about 1500, with a naval establishment of about 1200. There is a great dearth of labour, which is detrimental to the prosecution of works of any magnitude; that which is available is expensive, and this is very probably one of the main reasons that the agricultural prospects are so poor at present. A good many Portuguese have settled on the island, but when by their industry in cultivating onions and lilies they have made a little money, they leave.

The coloured population is a mixed race, descended from the old slaves—a pure negro is seldom or never seen. They take life very easily, and can live upon very little. They seem to have been treated kindly by their masters when they were slaves, and after being accorded their freedom, many being incapable of obtaining a living, were supported by their former masters for the rest of their lives.

As in the case of the West Indies, the abolition of slavery has not proved an unmingled blessing to either the colonists or the coloured population. A great many names of the old settlers are still found in Bermuda. The upper classes are for the most part engaged in trade, and inhabit good houses, standing in extensive grounds.

The Rev. Richard Buck was the first minister who performed the service of the Church of England in Bermuda, having been chaplain to the expedition of Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Somers, and a sharer of all their hardships in 1609.

Bermuda was attached to the see of Nova Scotia from 1825 to 1839, when it was transferred to the see of Newfoundland, on its establishment in the latter year. The Lord Bishop of Newfoundland is the Right Rev. Llewellyn Jones, D.D., who is also the

Bishop of Bermuda; he has visited the island on several occasions, and intends to make his visits biennial.

The Roman Catholic Church in Bermuda is attached to the see of Halifax, N.S.

The Presbyterian Church, Hamilton, is connected with the Presbytery of Nova Scotia, whereas that in Warwick is in union with the Free Kirk of Scotland. The Reformed Episcopal has a sort of congregational existence in sympathy with the same organisation in the United States and Canada. The African Methodist Episcopal, at first established there as the British Methodist Episcopal, is allied with the same order in the United States.

The parochial system obtained from the first settlement of these islands, the parish vestries having control of things both sacred and secular. This continued up to 1886, when the government of churches and graveyards was vested in two wardens and a church vestry, elected by those liable to be assessed for the maintenance of the Church of England (Non-conformists on *registration* being free from taxation for Church purposes).

Another vestry, known as the parish vestry, with two overseers of the poor, elected by the ratepayers, have cognisance of licenses, poor-house, and other municipal affairs. The Parish Councils, quite recently brought into existence in England, have thus existed in Bermuda since 1866. Up to 1882 the Crown appointed the clergy, and up to the death of Bishop Feild, 1876, the Bishop exercising jurisdiction in Bermuda. By an act of 1882 the patronage of Church livings is vested in the Synod, a body composed of the clergy and lay delegates elected by the church vestries in each parish and the cathedral vestry, one for each, for a term of three years. The powers of the Synod are as yet somewhat circumscribed, but are likely to

be enlarged in the course of time, in keeping with those of synods in other dioceses.

Each rector has two parishes, except the rector of St. George's, who has in reality a second parish in St. David's Island.

Divine service is held in each parish church once on Sundays, alternately morning and afternoon, according to legal custom. Of late years the clergy have multiplied services, giving evening services in the parish churches. At one time evangelical doctrines held their own, but now more fashionable ideas have been introduced more or less into all the churches in the islands, notwithstanding the objections of many of the parishioners.

The clergy of the various churches receive a small allowance from the public treasury, the grant being made on a capitation basis of £10 per hundred as returned by the previous census. The Church of England rectors receive each £140, and any surplus is paid to the Synod as the representative body of the Church, and who as they elect a bishop provide also for his income. The Clergy Act dates from 1820. In the session of 1883 the act was renewed for a further period of ten years, and in 1892 was continued to end of 1896, the governor at the opening of 1896 session recommending its further continuance.

The hesitation of the Legislature to incorporate a Synod and the uncertainty of the legislative aid being continued, led to the establishment of the Bermuda Church Society in 1876, having for its objects the collection of funds for increasing the income of the clergy of the Church of England, for the maintenance of the bishops, and providing for the widows and orphans of the clergy, &c., which has already accumulated by donations, annual subscriptions and bequests, property of some little value, which is being carefully husbanded against the day of necessity. This public



aid, though small in itself, is yet of material consequence in augmenting the inadequate salaries of all the clergy, has been extended to all denominations, and its principle of payment has been deemed an equitable one.

Other religious bodies than the Church of England in Bermuda hold their property either by trust, deed, or special act of incorporation by the Legislature. In January 1896 the Salvation Army began their work in Bermuda at Hamilton. Bermuda now boasts of a cathedral, as Trinity Church, which was destroyed a second time by fire some years ago, has been entirely reconstructed and constituted a cathedral under the act of the Bermuda Legislature of 1894. Hamilton therefore should now be considered a city. The design of the building is not suited to the climate, as the ventilation is insufficient, and at times it is oppressively hot inside; it would be better suited to a more northern clime. No expense has been spared in its construction, stone having been imported from Caen in Normandy for use in the arches, dressings of doors, windows, mouldings, &c. Some freestone was also procured from Nova Scotia, and polished granite from Peterhead, Scotland, for supporting the arches of the nave and aisles. Arbroath pavement stones were obtained from Leith, Scotland; the bosses of groining in porches came from South Devon, England. In addition to this the best native limestone has been used.

The educational interests of Bermuda have been maintained principally by private enterprise. The Act of 1870 relating to popular education, successively renewed, is that under which the present system of public education exists, so much per head with certain allowances being granted each school under the inspection of the Board of Education through their inspector. Bishop Berkeley's name is preserved in an educational associa-

tion for promoting higher education, called after him, in which the well-to-do of the coloured population have taken a considerable interest.

The Devonshire College, under the Act of 1816, existed only between the years 1829 and 1835, when the building was utilised for another purpose, and the funds divided between the white and coloured in equal shares for the establishment of a grammar school and master's residence for each class, within at least one mile of the town of Hamilton. The funds for the coloured school have not been sufficient to lead to much practical result, but those for the former class have been utilised in buying a house and grounds, which have been leased to Mr. Thomas Waddington, B.A., London, the head-master of the Saltus Grammar School. This institution was endowed by Samuel Saltus, Esq., who died in 1880, leaving the residue of his estate towards the support of a good school for white persons in or near Pembroke Parish; it was opened in 1880, and is well attended, boys even being sent over daily from as far as Ireland Island. There is a High school for girls, the head-mistress being Miss Tothill, of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, England. There are also several other schools in the islands.

Bermuda possesses three newspapers—the *Royal Gazette*, the *Bermuda Colonist*, and the *Bermuda Times*, or *People's Journal*, published weekly.

The dockyard is of great importance, as it is used for refitting the North American Squadron; it contains the largest floating-dock in the world, which is, however, not now of sufficient capacity for our monster ironclads, so that it is proposed to build a large dry dock capable of accommodating the largest ships we are likely to send to those waters.

Bermuda is reached from England *via* either New York or Halifax; the passage takes from two to three days from New York and four from Halifax. Direct

steam communication between England and Bermuda would do much to remove the isolation which is at present felt by English residents in Bermuda in consequence of the delays often experienced in transshipping at New York and Halifax. Mr. W. T. James, Bermuda, has a steamer which takes cargo out direct from London and a few passengers, once in every month or six weeks, but there is no direct communication for the return journey. There is a service of steamers between Bermuda and the West Indies.

Telegraph communication was opened with Halifax on the 14th July 1890 by the Halifax and Bermudas Cable Company, and their system has recently been extended from Bermuda *via* Turk's Island to Jamaica and the West Indies, and proved of great service during the Hispano-American war, as otherwise the West Indies would have been practically cut off from the rest of the world.

Telephonic communication between the different parts of the island is extensively utilised by the inhabitants, nearly every house being connected with one or other of the different exchanges.

The currency of the islands is British sterling, but American dollars circulate freely.

In writing this brief account I have drawn largely on "The Memorials of Bermuda," by Major-General J. H. Lefroy, R.A., C.B., F.R.S. (Longmans, Green, and Co.), a book which should be studied by every one desiring an intimate acquaintance with the history of Bermuda. I should mention also "A Historical Geography of the British Colonies," by C. P. Lucas, B.A. (Clarendon Press, Oxford); and "Bermuda: Past and Present," by John Ogilvy, M.A., M.D., Hamilton, Bermuda.







70° Longitude West of Greenwich

60°

Stanford's Geog<sup>r</sup> Estab<sup>r</sup>, London



THE DOMINION OF CANADA



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II.

WEST INDIES, CENTRAL AMERICA,  
AND SOUTH AMERICA





II.

WEST INDIES, CENTRAL AMERICA,  
AND SOUTH AMERICA



# THE WEST INDIES

## INTRODUCTION

BY SIR AUGUSTUS ADDERLEY, K.C.M.G., J.P.

*(Late Member of Legislative Council, Bahamas; Special Commissioner for the Bahamas and Jamaica International Fisheries Exhibition, 1883; Royal Commissioner Colonial and Indian Exhibition; and Executive Commissioner for West Indies and British Honduras Section, &c.)*

THE British West Indies represent an area of 100,000 square miles, and contain 1,500,000 British subjects, very few Caribs (the original inhabitants) being now in existence. It will be remembered that they were for the most part massacred by the Spaniards during the first few years of the colonisation of the islands, mainly because they refused to submit to slavery. However, throughout the islands a few of them still remain, but it is questionable whether they are pure bred. For the most part, the present islanders are the descendants of slaves, originally imported from Africa to take the place of the exterminated aborigines. The Archipelago embraces numerous islands that adjoin the waters of the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, on the western side of the Atlantic Ocean. They are mostly situated between the 10th degree of north latitude and the Tropic of Cancer.

In my Introduction to the Hand-Book to the West Indian Section of the Colonial and Indian Exhibition in 1886, I indicated the importance of united action

for the furtherance of the common interests and commercial prosperity of such of the West Indian Islands as are under the Imperial rule of her Majesty's Government. These remarks were the result of the evident and reiterated surprise of the public at the sight of the innumerable, and for the major part unknown, products exposed to their view in the vast collection aggregated in one court, the entire British West Indian colonies being united for the first time in one Section.

Since 1886, although no scheme of federation or even of co-operation for common interests has been in any way organised, things have been gradually tending in the right direction, and a Royal Commission in the meanwhile has reported on the Sugar Question, and on the general trade and products of the islands: but beyond the fact that the British Government has endeavoured by pecuniary assistance to bolster up the sugar industry, the Commission only confirmed what has been recommended over and over again, *i.e.* that the islanders should turn their attention to new products, and not rely entirely on sugar, which is easier said than done. The eminent Chairman, Sir Henry Norman, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., was the only man on the Commission who, so to speak, took the bull by the horns, and recommended, in the absence of agreement with foreign countries as to the abolition of the sugar bounties, the imposition of Countervailing Duties. Politicians, Liberal and Conservative, have condemned the injustice of the Bounty System, yet have not had the courage to put an end to this crying abuse. The Royal Commission, however, has certainly done a certain amount of good, for it has enabled those who are interested in the Sugar Trade to ventilate their grievances, and the attention of the British public generally has undoubtedly been attracted in an exceptional degree by the controversies which have



arisen out of this very important question. The bounties, too, are pinching severely some of our larger colonies, notably Queensland and Mauritius, so that the subject cannot remain in abeyance much longer; indeed the new Indian Tariff Act imposing Countervailing Duties upon bounty-fed sugar imported into India, is a considerable advance in the right direction, protecting as it does the Indian product, and assisting the produce of Mauritius. Mr. Chamberlain's speech in Parliament on the Act is significant, in comparison with his earlier speeches. The change in his views, after his unavailing efforts to aid in other ways, is pregnant with promise. Sir Henry Fowler, although opposed to the Indian Tariff Act, is right when he asks, "Can we stop here?" Assuredly the Government should do justice to the West Indies in the markets of Great Britain. Sir Nevile Lubbock, the London and Liverpool Chambers of Commerce, and others have done good work in the cause. On the other hand, Lord Farrar is evidently of opinion that the non-imposition of Countervailing Duties may be excused, even if detrimental to the interests of our West Indian dependencies, since he declares that "It may be bad for our sugar-producers, but for the bulk of the community, for the housewife in every cottage, and for the large trades founded on sugar, it is an inestimable advantage to have the sugar which other nations reject poured into our own market." Lord Farrar is evidently quite happy if Englishmen consume sugar below the cost of production, even if by so doing they ruin a portion of the empire. What matters it to him if our fellow-subjects starve, so long as the interests of the Mother Country are safe? A statesmanlike policy, forsooth, and one well calculated to strengthen those bonds which should unite in one close tie every portion of our possessions in peace and loyalty to the Crown!

The clouds which have hitherto hung so heavily over the West Indian Islands are gradually lifting, and even now present a slender silver lining; and it is to be hoped that, when new blood and capital have been introduced, a new era of prosperity will dawn. Improved communications are rapidly developing the very important fruit trade, and numerous organised and comparatively cheap excursions from England are enabling many Englishmen to become personally acquainted with the beauty of the scenery and the resources of these magnificent islands. The erection of first-class hotels is attracting invalids to the salubrious climate of some of the West Indian Islands, which, during the winter months, is exceedingly restful, the thermometer remaining almost stationary (between  $60^{\circ}$  and  $80^{\circ}$ ) night and day, and the attention of the millionaire owner of the enormous palatial hotels on the Florida coast has already been drawn to the health-giving and equable climate of Nassau, Bahamas, which stands unrivalled throughout the world for its beneficial effect on nervous diseases. The mere fact that Mr. Flagler, who may truthfully be described as the greatest hotel builder in the world, is erecting two very large hotels is a guarantee that before long an immense influx of rich Americans from the United States, Canada, and the Southern Republics will contribute in an amazing degree to the prosperity of the first portion of the New World discovered by Columbus in 1492, especially as the journey from the mainland is now performed by fast daily steamers in less than eighteen hours. In these islands also the wisdom of cultivating neglected products has been forcibly illustrated by the recent development of sisal fibre; but it took many governors, notably Sir W. Robinson, G.C.M.G., Sir H. Blake, G.C.M.G., and the energetic Sir Ambrose Shea, K.C.M.G., among others, many years to bring the people to recognise the value of a plant introduced over fifty years ago by a

former Colonial Secretary, the late Mr. Charles Rogers Nesbitt.

The prospects of the Bahamas stand out brightly in contrast with the West Indian sugar-growing islands, for they are in no need of pecuniary assistance, resting as they do on their own merits. They have a surplus revenue, an intelligent Legislature, and possess exceedingly useful products, among others, salt, fruit, sponge, and sisal. Add to this an exceptionally healthy climate, and it may easily be foreseen that a brilliant future is in store for this small but favoured group. Many a victim of pulmonary and nervous diseases, who has stood no chance of recovery in the United States, in Canada, or in our own capricious and damp climate, has entirely recovered after a sojourn in the Bahamas, and has lived to sing the praises of those happy lands which have been gracefully and truthfully named by a great American poet the "Isles of June."

Trinidad, Jamaica, and Barbados must also eventually progress, the second named having an important position, especially in view of the prospective Panama Canal. Commercial reciprocity with the United States should do much good.

West Indians are loyal and faithful subjects to the Queen; but undoubtedly without that fostering care, which is now more necessary than ever in consequence of the unfair treatment to which they have been lately subjected, that loyalty may eventually be sapped. There are not wanting people, and indeed some who may be described as distinctly far-seeing, who, discontented with the manner in which the Home Government is treating the West Indies, do not hesitate to express the opinion that were they under American rule they would be exceedingly benefited thereby, especially since the recent Cuban war, which has resulted in the annexation to the United States of two of the most important of the group, Cuba and

Porto Rico, and enables them with the aid of a powerful fleet to dominate the Central and South American Coast, and to threaten the approaches to the Panama Canal. This is a danger which may at the present time be remote, but nevertheless it is one more worthy of the consideration of our statesmen than perhaps appears on the surface. Havana is virtually the capital of the West Indies, and if the Americans are true to themselves, undoubtedly the prosperity of their new possession will in the next decade be amazing. It therefore behoves the Imperial Government to bestir itself, and enhance in every way the commercial interests of those islands which are under our rule, and to propitiate as much as possible the present loyal disposition of their population.

AUGUSTUS ADDERLEY.

*June 16, 1899.*



# THE WEST INDIES : GENERAL

BY MRS. ERNEST HART

(*Author of "Picturesque Burma"; "The West Indies as they are and as they might be"; "Daily Graphic," &c.*)

## INTRODUCTION

It would be impossible in the short time at my disposal to give a clear idea and detailed account of all the islands of the West Indies. I therefore propose to speak only of those islands which I have personally visited, and where I attempted to get some information on the spot of the social, industrial, and political conditions under which the people live.

Since the wonder-days of childhood when we followed with liveliest interest the adventures of Robinson Crusoe, have we not all desired to see the wondrous islands of the Atlantic Tropics? Indeed, have we not felt drawn "Westward ho!" like Columbus, to the very gates of the setting sun, and wished to find ourselves where, as Tennyson describes—

"No want there was of human sustenance,  
Soft fruitage, mighty nuts, and nourishing roots,  
The mountain wooded to the peak, the lawns  
And winding glades high up like ways to heaven.  
The slender coco's drooping crown of plumes,  
The lightning flash of insect and of bird,  
The lustre of the long convolvuluses  
That coiled around the stately stems, and ran  
Even to the limit of the land."

It was, therefore, with no small sense of pleasurable anticipation that, this time last year, I found myself

aboard an ocean liner bound for a cruise to the West Indies.

The impressions of that interesting journey were not only those of splendid colour, of luxurious vegetation, and of glorious sunlight, but of social conditions unexpected and unexplained, of economic problems difficult to solve, and of industrial anomalies which find no counterpart in other countries.

If I succeed in awakening in your minds some of the interest with which the West Indies inspired mine, I trust the hour will not be unprofitably spent.

### BARBADOS

Barbados is the Clapham Junction of the West Indies. Every ship going to or coming from the islands passes through the portals of its busy harbour, and Bridgetown is the meeting and the starting point for all inter-insular boats.

After being a fortnight at sea, the busy mid-ocean mart of Bridgetown is a pleasant surprise. The harbour is seen to be full of shipping—frigates and gunboats from Great Britain, steamers from America, liners from London, and tramps from the islands crowd the placid waters. Our steamer is at once surrounded by numerous row-boats, occupied by coal-black negroes and negresses, who are dressed either in the whitest of shirts and trousers, or in the gayest and cleanest of print dresses. These clamour for passengers, or make the most voluble assurances that our washing can be trusted to them with the certainty of a quick return.

The first landing at a new place in the East, or the Tropics, or at an unvisited country, is always an agreeable experience, accompanied with a sense of pleasurable excitement, and the first aspect of a people or race hitherto unknown to one produces an impression never to be effaced. The gentlemanly languor and the cleanly

neatness of the Tamils of Ceylon, the half-starved look and the melancholy apathy of the Bengali of Calcutta, the light-hearted joyousness and the ready courtesy of the Japanese of Nagasaki, make impressions which no subsequent knowledge of the country eradicates. In the same way, on landing at Barbados, the bold bearing, the gay-hearted insouciance, and the air of insolent independence of the native Barbadians strike one at once. The women walk erect, clad in spotless white dresses and coloured turbans, and, with swinging gait and statuesque pose, they carry all burdens on their heads. They look you straight in the face out of their bold black eyes, as if to say, "I am black, but I am as good as you any day, if not better." Nearly every one one meets is black—the sailors, the artisans, the shopmen, the waiters—and there is observed in none of them that cringing subserviency so characteristic of the native people of India. The activity of the town of Bridgetown is also surprising to a new-comer. The streets are thronged with passengers, tram-cars run down the narrow roads, and shops and stores (on the American plan) line the sides. There are also handsome and substantial buildings and churches; but the masses of scarlet poinsettias and purple bougainvilliers blazing in the sunlight in the public gardens emphasise the fact that we are indeed again in the tropics.

Seen from the high deck of the steamer in harbour the island appears to be one large farm, the fields of which are as green as the cornfields of England in spring; but it is not corn which looks so verdant, but sugar-cane, for the whole island of Barbados is in fact one large sugar estate.

The island is small, containing only 166 square miles, and is little larger than the Isle of Wight; but of its 106,000 acres 74,000 are planted with sugar-cane. The white roads which intersect the island in every direction, and the cuttings for the same, demon-

strate the fact, even to the most casual observer, that Barbados is an ancient coral reef. The highest elevation of the land does not exceed 1000 feet above the level of the sea. Two other things strike the new-comer; they are the excessive number of primitive windmills which are seen to rise everywhere above the green fields of waving sugar-cane, and the numerous villages or groups of streets of square, wooden, toy-like houses. These are the habitations of the negro population, which is so dense that Barbados is probably the most thickly populated island in the world. There are no less than 186,000 persons, giving 1120 to the square mile.

The negro's house is simplicity itself. It is built of four wooden walls, attached at the angles by overlapping fillets, the floor being supported on stone piles. Inside, the house is divided into two compartments, a sitting and a sleeping room. Cooking, when required, is done outside. These cottages are bright, clean, and gaily decorated. They have also the advantage of being capable of being moved with the greatest facility. I have with much amusement and interest watched a negro take down his house. He first removes the side fillets and takes to pieces the walls, roof, and floor, and with the greatest solemnity he proceeds to lay them on a truck drawn by a tiny donkey. The whole is then trundled off to some new sugar estate, where the man has got work, and where the family house is again set up with the greatest expedition.

Barbados has always remained British since it was taken possession of in 1605. It was then uninhabited, and in order to find labour with which to work the sugar estates, African negroes were imported as slaves. For two hundred years Barbados enjoyed a long period of the greatest prosperity, which was at its height before the discovery and colonisation of Jamaica, for Barbados then practically supplied the old world with the luxury



of sugar. Profits were immense, and extravagance of living was in correspondence.

As it was contrary to the precepts of Christianity to enslave a fellow-Christian, it was found convenient to deny the negro a soul, to forbid him the comforts of religion, to be baptized, or to enter a church. Wilberforce and the emancipation of slaves changed all this. As in Barbados there were no forest and unoccupied lands on which the negro could squat, he remained a free labourer on the sugar estates. Gradually he learnt to use his freedom and to value the education which could lift him into equality with the white man. Coloured and white people have now the same educational advantages offered them in Barbados, and in proof of the fact that the negro can occasionally attain to the highest and most responsible positions, may be adduced the fact that the Chief-Justice of the island, Sir W. C. Reeves, is a full-blooded negro. He has absolute jurisdiction over black and white people alike. As may be imagined, he is a man of great ability and character.

The negro has strong views on racial and socialistic questions. He disbelieves the story of having been in the dim past kidnapped in Central Africa and brought to the West Indies in slavery, and he believes in his heart of hearts that the black races are the aborigines of the West Indian Islands, that the white men were the invaders and enslavers, and he argues that they, having brought the bounteous islands nigh to ruin by their rapacity and extravagance, had better clear out and leave the land to the natives.

In a sense he is right; for where peasant proprietorship has taken the place of huge estates managed in the interests of the few, there most surely the village, the parish, or indeed the whole island—as in the case of Grenada—is saved from the ruin which now overshadows the planter who staked his all on sugar.

The position of Barbados is at present extremely grave, and is the cause of the deepest anxiety to both the home and the colonial Governments. Almost the whole of the island is under sugar-cane, the capital invested being about two millions sterling. Twenty-five per cent. of the population are engaged in sugar cultivation, and know no other industry. There are 440 sugar estates, 150 of which, with an area of 48,550 acres (namely, two-thirds of the total area in sugar-cane), are owned by absentees. Only 99 of the sugar estates use steam-power; the rest depend on the constant trade-winds as their motor force, and on primitive windmills for their factories. It thus happens that only raw or muscovado sugar is produced, except in eight mills. The average export of sugar (93 per cent. of which is taken by the United States) is 50,000 tons per annum. In twelve years this has fallen to half its former value. In the good old times sugar from Barbados fetched £40 a ton; now its market price is £8, 8s. a ton, and as it costs £8, 12s. 2d. to produce, it is being sold at a loss. All the estates are moreover heavily mortgaged, and the sugar trade is without credit and without capital. The position is indeed desperate.

The methods of crushing the cane, extracting and evaporating the sugar, are most primitive in Barbados. As I stood one day watching the canes pass through the heavy rollers of a windmill I exclaimed to the manufacturer, "Surely there must be much sugar left in the canes by such an imperfect method, and much consequent loss?" "Ah yes," he replied, with the apathy of despair, "but what can we do? we cannot improve our machinery, we have no capital." The loss is indeed so great that it is estimated that no less than 2000 lbs. of sugar per acre remain in the canes after crushing. This saccharine refuse is then used for fuel. In Barbados 13.6 tons of cane produce one ton of

sugar; with the best machinery, 9.5 tons of cane are sufficient.

In my letters on the West Indies, which were published in the *Daily Graphic*, September 13th, 14th, 21st, 22nd, 1897, I wrote: "There are many who think that sugar can still be grown in Barbados at a fair profit, if the sugar growers will be content to be growers only, and not manufacturers as well. They contend that the small factories cannot with their imperfect and antiquated machinery be worked at a profit, but that, if a capital of £50,000 could be raised or loaned, a large central factory with the best and newest machinery could be founded, to which the growers could bring or sell their cane to be worked. If this were done by the aid of the Home Government, and done quickly, Barbados, it is contended, might be saved from impending ruin, and its sugar industry placed again on a paying basis."

It was gratifying to me to find, when the Report of the West Indies Commission was published, that among the remedies recommended to the Home Government for the desperate condition of things in Barbados, was a loan of £120,000 for a central factory, and it was urged that the small proprietors should become cane farmers only, instead of attempting to be both cane growers and sugar manufacturers.

But I urged then and urge still that more could be done by co-operation among the cane growers and sugar manufacturers than by dependence on Government loans, and that Barbados may learn a practical lesson from Denmark. "Denmark was the first agricultural country to discover that butter could not be made either well or commercially in small quantities, and by each farmer acting at the same time as dairyman and butter manufacturer; but that by the establishment of large central creameries, where butter could be manufactured on the most scientific principles and

by the best and newest machinery, she, though a small and poor country, might hope to compete with wealthier and larger agricultural countries. The experiment was successfully carried out, with the well-known result that Danish butter beats all others in price and quality, and that, in order to compete with Denmark in their own markets, England and Ireland have been obliged to adopt the Danish system of central creameries. By this arrangement the farmer is left to give his whole attention to the production of the milk richest in cream, he being paid for his milk a price proportionate to the amount of cream it contains. The remarkable result achieved by Denmark, and by other countries who have followed her lead, has been brought about chiefly by co-operation among the farmers themselves, each one of whom has a commercial interest in the creamery to which he sells his milk. Taking a lesson therefore from Denmark, and without waiting for Government help or subsidies, the sugar planters of Barbados and the West Indies might combine to establish central co-operative sugar factories, they agreeing to give up their small methods of manufacture, and to confine themselves to the cultivation of the cane, payment for which should be made according to the amount of saccharine matter it contained. They should receive shares in the factory commensurate to the average amount of cane brought to the factory to be worked. Planters would then turn their attention, with better practical results, to the cultivation of highly saccharine cane, and the manufacturers would have at their disposal the best practical means of extracting the utmost of the saccharine matter from the cane."

Barbados is so absolutely and entirely dependent on sugar cultivation that the utmost will be done by the Government to save its industry. But the Barbadians must be ready also to make sacrifices, and one



which they are called upon to make, is to reduce at once and with a strong hand the enormous cost of administration. Barbados has a revenue of £180,000 a year raised on duties and excise. To govern this little island, as small as the Isle of Wight, no less than £50,000 a year is paid in official salaries. This is two-thirds of the total official salaries paid in Queensland. Since 1891 there has always been a deficit of several thousand pounds, and the public debt now reaches the enormous figure of £405,000.

There is no doubt that Barbados must needs pass through a grave crisis, and it is only by patience, courage, energy, and economy she can extricate herself from her difficulties; but all must wish that the little colony, which has been so long proudly British to the core, will discover some way of courting prosperity, even if sugar should ultimately fail entirely.

On leaving Barbados, the island which is next visited is generally that of

#### TRINIDAD.

On our way hither we pass Tobago, the desert island in which Defoe placed Robinson Crusoe; then, leaving the Spanish Main to starboard, the intricate channels of the Bocas are threaded till Port of Spain is reached.

The contrast between Barbados and Trinidad is very great. In Trinidad nature revels in abundance, and is lavish with her gifts. The hills rising above the town, and the Savannas are clothed to their summits with forests; the silk-cotton trees thrust their huge buttresses into the mossy earth; the shores are lined with groves of cocoa-palms; the roads are shaded with the leafy bread-fruit and other trees, and even the commercial cocoa-gardens flourish under the shade of the

scarlet blooms of the *bois immortelle*. Above the deep blue hollows of the mountains are piled the vast cloud-peaks of the Trades, and day and night are ushered in with a pæan of glorious colour in the sky.

Trinidad is the scene of Kingsley's "At Last," and the subject of his enthusiastic descriptions. Indeed, except by the aid of lantern slides I can give you no idea of the wealth and beauty of the vegetation.

Trinidad is moreover prosperous. The Port of Spain is the cleanest, brightest, and busiest town in the West Indies, and in the style and importance of its shops, and the variety of the goods displayed, it can hold its own with English towns.

Beyond the town is the Savanna, a wide green common, where under the spreading ceiba trees mild-eyed cows are grazing, and on its outskirts are set the houses of the Venezuelan and Trinidad merchants, in the midst of gardens shaded by palms and blazing with tropical blooms.

Though but ten degrees above the equator, the heat of Trinidad is not excessive, for the air is tempered by the constant trade-winds. The island lies, however, outside the hurricane region. The soil is extremely fertile, and will grow heavy crops of all tropical staples.

Of the 1,120,000 acres the island contains, 800,000 are cultivable; of this, 434,000 are in the hands of private owners, and 366,000 are Crown lands. There is a large extent of cultivable land still unoccupied and uncultivated, much of which is virgin soil.

Trinidad has not like Barbados staked its all on sugar, for as during the past twenty years the sugar industry has diminished in value, another, the cocoa industry, has grown up, and has in a great measure taken its place. In twenty years the sugar exports from Trinidad have diminished £700,000 in value, where in the same time there has been a net increase in cocoa exports of £1,220,000, and it is estimated

that the industry is the means of distributing £270,000 annually in the colony.

In Trinidad, moreover, the sugar manufacturers have not been willing to go on making raw sugar on the imperfect methods of their forefathers, but have established central factories with the most modern improvements in boilers, furnaces, multiple evaporators, crushing mills, and other machinery, and most of the estates are fully equipped for producing the best qualities of sugar at the cheapest possible rates. The thirty-nine sugar estates of Trinidad cover an area of 66,500 acres, and have a capital invested of £2,500,000. The export value of sugar from Trinidad reaches the high figure of £774,000, but it is nevertheless averred that unless prices improve the industry is in danger of extinction.

What may seem to some a small change is exerting a considerable influence on the sugar industry in Trinidad. This is cane-farming, namely, the growing of canes for the factories by the better class of labourers and small proprietors on their holdings. This industry was started a few years ago, and it was soon found that the small farmers could grow canes at cheaper rates than the estates, with their costly management. In 1895, 170,500 tons of "farmers' canes" were taken by the factories; and in 1896, 620,600 tons, or four times as much.

In the opinion of the Acting-Governor "cane-farming will go a long way towards saving the sugar industry." This is an interesting example of the voluntary adoption of the principles of co-operation and of the advantages of making a large industry depend on the goodwill of the many instead of on the advantage of the few. The negro reaches, moreover, a higher level as an independent cultivator than as a labourer, treated, alas! too often not as fairly as if he were protected by a powerful trades-union.

It is thus seen that in Trinidad the experiment is

being tried which is advocated for Barbados, namely, the establishment of well-equipped central factories, the bulk of the canes for which is supplied by cane farmers. Its ultimate success will be watched with the keenest interest and anxiety.

Cocoa cultivation is a large and profitable industry. In Trinidad the exports in 1895 reached the figure of £620,600. A cocoa estate takes many years to establish, but when the bushes are in full bearing the income derived is considerable. Last year there were loud complaints as to falling prices, but if they have now reached bottom the cocoa planter will still have no reason to complain. There is one idea which seems to be engrained in the minds of the West Indian planter, namely, that the proper distribution of wealth is 1000 per cent. for himself, and the least possible for the employees. The best remedy for this inequality is peasant proprietorship; and it is satisfactory to find that the black peasantry of the West Indies are beginning to demand for themselves a share in the bounteous gifts of nature.

Besides asphalt—obtained in inexhaustible stores from the Pitch Lake—the only other valuable export produced in Trinidad is coco-nuts. But what Trinidad might produce if its thousands of acres of rich but uncultivated soil were intelligently cultivated, if its people were not left in absolute ignorance of agriculture but were trained in the prolific arts of tropical farming, if its government was as wise and provident as it is now costly and short-sighted, it is impossible to say; but it is certain that the island might become one of the richest as well as the happiest and the most lovely on the earth.



## GRENADA.

The beautiful island of Grenada offers another contrast both to Trinidad and Barbados, for here not only the social conditions differ from those which prevail elsewhere in the West Indies, but, owing to this difference, the great sugar crisis which is so seriously affecting the other islands is quite unfelt in Grenada.

The approach to this "Spice Island of the West" is very picturesque. Forest-clad mountains rise from the centre; and climbing down a steep hill, nestling at the edge of the placid land-locked bay, is the little town of Georgetown, which, with its red roofs and church spires, recalls memories of old England.

On landing and on penetrating up the steep streets into the crowded market-place, and out into the shady country lanes along which women are trooping, carrying farm produce in baskets on their heads, one cannot fail to be immediately struck by the aspect and bearing of the native people. They have an air of well-being and a self-respecting look of independence which make an agreeable impression.

For a negro race they are handsome, they speak good English, and the boatmen and carmen with whom one chats strike one as being unusually intelligent. Thus my black car-driver gave me the names of all the trees we passed, and my boatmen insisted I should collect and learn the names of the various corals of the sea bottom. The cottages are neat, and nearly every one has its little plantation of gay-coloured crotons before the door. And what is the reason, we ask, for this obviously happier and more prosperous condition of things? The secret lies in the fact that the island is owned by the people. There are here no large sugar estates, no wealthy proprietors. Of the 85,000 acres the island contains, 77,000 acres are divided into 6800 holdings farmed by proprietors. Of these, 5600 hold-

ings are under 5 acres in extent, 843 from 5 to 20 acres, and 205 from 20 to 100 acres.

For a hundred years Grenada has been under English government—having previously belonged to France—but in the last century the island was the unhappy scene of tyranny, reprisals, and massacres. On the emancipation of the slaves in 1838, the negroes refused to occupy the position of labourers on the sugar estates. They obtained plots of land for provision grounds, and in course of time became peasant proprietors. Under these circumstances the sugar industry, necessitating the employment of large capital, gradually declined until it became extinct. The exports of the island did not, however, decline in the same ratio, but on the contrary steadily improved, the revenue increasing also in a satisfactory manner. These happy results are due to the fact that the people betook themselves to the cultivation of cocoa and spices. Cocoa cultivation has been extended during the past twenty years, mainly through the negro labouring classes obtaining by purchase small holdings of land and planting the same with cocoa; and as to the profit-yielding spice-trees, most of the peasants have a few trees in their holdings which are a perennial source of income to them, as the products are sold weekly to some local dealer.

It is true that in the prosperous years of 1888–1893, when the export trade reached a figure nearly double what it had been seven years previously, the small farmers were tempted into borrowing money to improve and extend their holdings, and they have consequently, in many cases, placed themselves in difficulties. Yet no fear is expressed that Grenada will be able to come well out of the present depression; and if the Home Government carry out the recommendations of the West Indies Commission with respect to Grenada, namely, to encourage fruit

cultivation, give agricultural instruction, and subsidise fruit steamers between the islands and New York, there is every reason to believe that the British Government will be able to point to Grenada as a successful example of a colony governed in the interests, and for the happiness, of its negro subjects.

But in Grenada, as in the other small islands, the costs of government must be diminished by means of a scheme of federation. It is interesting to note in this connection that the expenditure of Grenada has exceeded revenue, in consequence of additional expenditure on roads and education—two necessary desiderata in the development of the West Indian Islands. Though only five per cent. of the population are white, there are thirty-seven elementary schools, a grammar school for boys, and two schools for the secondary education of girls.

On my first arrival at Georgetown, I took a buggy and drove up the steep streets to the governor's garden, where the orchids hanging from the trees, and the humming-birds in the flower-laden bushes, gave a sense of tropical luxuriousness to the wide views over sea and mountains; then along the country roads, where under the shade of spreading trees, and beside hedges of dræcenas and crotons, the peasant women passed to market, chatting gaily; then to the busy market-place, where the fruits and spices from their little farms are exposed for sale; and then to the cricket-field (where a great match was afterwards played), but here, on the green sward beside the lazy river, cows were quietly grazing, while little black boys shouted to each other over their game of cricket. At sunrise and sunset hour I was out in a boat round the sheltered bays, where the mango dips its oyster-covered roots into the shallow waters, and the palm waves its graceful fronds over the amber sea, the floor of which is paved with corals and sea ferns.

Altogether Grenada left on my mind the impression of a beautiful, a peaceful, and a happy spot, though God's children there are black.

Far other was the impression produced by

#### UNFORTUNATE ST. VINCENT.

Of the same size, and as beautiful, fertile, and well-watered as Grenada, and yet there are here but 10,000 acres beneficially occupied by cultivation. One hundred and twenty-nine estates occupy 50,500 acres, but only a small part of them is cultivated. There are very few small proprietors cultivating their own land; wages are very low, and are decreasing, and there is a great want of continuous employment; the able-bodied men emigrate, and the women and children are left behind helpless and poverty-stricken.

In the last fifteen years the sugar exports from St. Vincent have diminished from £150,000 to £57,000. The whole industry is also in the most decayed condition; the land starved, the canes diseased, and the processes of manufacture are of the most primitive and imperfect description. At the same rate of progression the sugar industry will soon become extinct. Great sugar estates lie derelict, and what is worse still, thousands of acres of fertile land round the coast remain in the hands of private owners, who will not sell, and cannot cultivate them.

Meanwhile destitution stares the unhappy St. Vincent people in the face. Government will be obliged to put little-used powers in force, to combat the monstrous selfishness of the landowners, which is ruining the whole island; and the lands which lie unused will be expropriated, on payment of reasonable compensation to the owners, for the benefit of the races, who are there through our own act, and for whom we must provide. When this is done, St.



Vincent may hope to become as prosperous and as happy as Grenada.

### ST. LUCIA.

The same story of neglected opportunities, of rich lands allowed to lie waste, of forest lands once cleared and planted lapsing into ruin, and of a declining sugar trade, can be also told of the beautiful island of St. Lucia. Indeed Dr. Morris, the Assistant-Director of Kew, says: "Speaking generally, beyond the cultivation of sugar, and possibly cocoa, the agricultural development of St. Lucia has hardly begun." And yet this is the island which England spent some of her best blood in wresting from the French.

For a hundred years the possession of St. Lucia was contested by the French and English, the unfortunate island being the prize of war, first on one side and then on the other. It was finally ceded to the English in 1803, but it had been so devastated and depopulated by war and internecine struggles, that it has never since attained to a state of prosperity.

All the conditions are nevertheless present which invite prosperity; a rich soil, a fine climate, land to be had on very moderate terms, which, with proper cultivation, will grow crops yielding valuable returns. What St. Lucia, and still more Dominica, want are young vigorous emigrants, with small capital, men who are willing to lead the industrious planter's life, and who can assuredly earn a competency in return.

It is stated on the best authority that coffee and cocoa might be successfully cultivated in St. Lucia, and that cattle-raising might be carried on with profit.

The scenery of St. Lucia is of singular beauty and weird grandeur. On approaching the island the Pitons are passed, two pyramidal and jungle-clad cliffs, which rise 3000 feet stark from the sea. They are

the topmost peaks of mountains, the bases of which rest on the broad bottom of the Atlantic, two miles below the surface. On leaving St. Lucia, the Diamond Rock is passed, which stands as an immortal testimony to British pluck, for, in the war of the last century with the French, an English admiral used this rock as a fortress. Cannons were hauled up its precipitous sides, and Lieutenant Maurice with 120 men and boys were left to garrison it. The rock was duly entered as H.M.S. the Diamond Rock. For eighteen months its guns swept the seas, but the gallant garrison were at last obliged to capitulate with honour, owing to want of powder.

It is indeed regrettable that colonies so won should not be more valued by the mother country.

St. Lucia has been recently made a coaling station for the West Atlantic, and the hills above Castries are strongly fortified and garrisoned.

After passing the French Martinique, the island of

#### DOMINICA

is sighted, its mountains and great cliffs veiled in driving mists and wreathed with rainbows.

Of all the islands Dominica is the most beautiful, the most fertile, and the most neglected. Its possession was fiercely contended for by the French and ourselves, but since it was finally ceded to us a hundred years ago, we have done absolutely nothing to develop it, except to give it a costly government, for the maintenance of which the poor people are heavily taxed.

There can be no more memorable and interesting excursion than to go on pony-back along one of the paths (for roads there are none) which cross the island of Dominica. Up through groves of coco-palms, never out of sound of the noisy brooks which are forded now and again, past derelict sugar estates and ruined mills, along banks where sensitive plants

and pine-apples grow wild, and calladiums and orchids cover the bark of the trees, up to where the tree-ferns grow in thousands, clothing the mountain sides and waving their long feathery fronds in the fresh breezes of the Trades.

Arriving at length at some high pass, a wide extent of hill and valley is overlooked, of forest unreclaimed and of fertile lands uncultivated; and as the lovely landscape now smiles in the sunshine, and is now tearful in the driving mist and rain, the silence is only broken by the plaintive chords of the *siffleur des bois*. Yet this neglected island contains everything which can make tropical life enjoyable, a fertile soil, a healthy climate, brooks and torrents in every valley, a total absence of snakes, ticks, mosquitoes, and noxious animals, an abounding beauty, and a docile, willing, and intelligent peasantry. In spite of all this, Dominica is neglected by those who are asking whither they should go to make their fortunes, and who seek them in the Arctic circle of Klondyke, or in the malarial swamps of West Africa, and till quite recently the island has been forgotten by the Home Government. Of its 186,000 acres of land, but one-sixth is cultivated. The Crown owns 80,000 acres, and is willing to sell to immigrants on the easiest terms, from 10s. to £1 an acre. But before the Crown lands can be cultivated, roads must be made, and Parliament will shortly be asked to pass a vote for this purpose. When roads are made, Dominica will be *par excellence* the Paradise of the industrious young planter. Here at different altitudes, limes, coffee, cocoa, fruits, and fibre plants can be grown with great success, and be made to give a substantial return for the money and labour invested.

The winter climate is also so perfect, and the thermal springs of the island are of such great medicinal value, that ere long Dominica must become a

favourite winter resort for invalids. Those who are seeking investment for capital I cannot recommend too strongly to investigate the resources and capabilities of Dominica.

#### JAMAICA.

There has been so much to tell about the less known islands of the West Indies that I have not left myself time to speak at any length of Jamaica, the largest and the most important of the British West Indies. Jamaica is a country in itself; and its separation by many hundreds of miles from the rest of the West Indies group has given it a character and history particularly distinctive. The industries, the resources, and the future of Jamaica are so important that I should be glad to have the opportunity of addressing you on some future occasion on the subject of this colony rather than do it scant justice at the end of this lecture.

The question which is at the present moment of public importance is the future of the sugar industry. In Jamaica, as elsewhere, the production of sugar has greatly diminished, so that whereas in 1881 it was 77 per cent. of the total exports, it is now but 20 per cent. It still remains, however, a most valuable industry, and distributes in the island in wages no less than £373,000 a year. It is contended that, by improved methods of cultivation and manufacturing, Jamaica sugar and rum may continue to prove a remunerative industry; but should foreign competition prove in the end too strong, the loss of the sugar industry would not be so serious a blow to Jamaica as it would be to Barbados; for owing to the great and exceptional natural advantages of Jamaica, the variety of climate obtained at different elevations, the fertility of the soil, the abundance of the labour available, and the proximity of the island to its best market, *i.e.* the



United States, other industries would arise to take its place. Thus within the last few years the banana and the orange industry have, mainly through the operations of the Boston Fruit Company, grown to very large proportions. In 1896 the value of the banana exports reached £316,000, and of oranges £170,000; the two being largely in excess of the exports of sugar for the same year.

Jamaica has only to recognise the greatness of her potentialities, and to determine by the cultivation of all her valuable resources, by the liberal education of her varied peoples, by the efforts of her government to work in the interests of the whole people untrammelled by the costly burdens of officialism, to become a powerful, wealthy, and prosperous colony. The agricultural resources of the country are immense; the waste and neglect of many of these are surprising. What Jamaica needs more than anything else is *patriotism*, and unless the white man develops a more patriotic love of the beautiful island which is his home, he runs the danger of being ousted by the "brown man" who, educated, restless, and ambitious, meets him in all the walks of life. But at this late hour the racial, economic, and political questions of Jamaica cannot be discussed. The West Indies Commission has brought prominently before the public the difficulties and the possible disasters which at present haunt the islands of the West Indies: but, while attempting to show how to overcome or avert these, it will do a still more valuable work if it awakens the Home and Colonial Governments to the realisation of their duties to the smaller, undeveloped, and neglected islands, and demonstrates to the English people that in their beautiful and once highly-prized colonies fortunes are still to be made in the peaceful occupation of cultivating fruit, coffee, and cocoa, and in breaking virgin soil in the tropics of the Far West.

# BAHAMAS

BY SIR WM. ROBINSON, G.C.M.G.

*(Late Governor of the Bahama Islands, also of Windward Islands,  
Trinidad, Hong Kong, &c.)*

“THE land of the Pink Pearl” is the very picturesque and yet not inappropriate name by which the colony of the Bahamas is known.

In those charming islands, of which Nassau is the capital, I spent six happy years of my middle life, and I propose to tell you something about them—something respecting their products, their capabilities, and their people. A paper of this sort may often be instructive, but it is difficult to make it interesting, and, above all, amusing as well. It will be necessary for me to use the personal pronoun very often, as I shall adopt the narrative instead of the essay style, and you must make every allowance for this apparent, though not actual, weakness.

I little thought when I was Commissioner for the Colonies at Vienna in 1873 that in the following year I should be appointed Governor of the Bahamas, but such was the case, and I landed there as her Majesty’s representative on the 2nd December 1874, nearly a quarter of a century ago.

The Bahamas lie off the coast of Florida, and their shores are washed by the Gulf Stream. They are remarkable in the history of the New World from St. Salvador having been discovered by Christopher Columbus on his expedition of 1492, which was one of the greatest and most important ever undertaken.

At that time the Bahamas were filled with inhabitants, who welcomed the arrival of Columbus with pleasure and hospitality. There are about nineteen inhabited islands, and numberless uninhabited cays and islets in the Bahama group.

The principal island is New Providence, the capital of which is Nassau, with about 12,000 inhabitants. The total population of the Bahamas is, roughly speaking, 52,000.

New Providence was settled by the English in 1629, and held till 1641, when the Spaniards expelled them, but made no attempt to settle there themselves. In 1662 the Bahama Islands were granted by letters patent to the Lords Proprietors of the Carolines, who made special application for them to Charles II., and they (the proprietors) at once appointed a governor.

In 1667 New Providence was again colonised by the English, but it afterwards, in 1703, fell into the hands of the French and Spaniards, and it and several of the adjacent islands became a rendezvous for pirates until they were extirpated in 1717. In 1727 an Order in Council was issued by the Imperial Government granting legislative privileges to the colony. In 1781 the Bahamas were surrendered to the Spaniards, but at the end of the war they were once more annexed, and finally confirmed to Great Britain by the peace of Versailles in 1783. It will thus be seen that the Bahamas have passed through various vicissitudes. It was about this time, 1783, that the civil war in the United States, which resulted in their independence, was concluded. The royalist families in Georgia and South Carolina, not liking the new *régime*, left the States to which I have referred in large numbers and settled in the Bahamas, taking with them their slaves and "household gods," and establishing cotton plantations on some of the islands. Lands were granted to them,

and also important electoral privileges. Not long after this the heirs of all the Lords Proprietors to whom the Bahama Islands had been granted by Charles II. formally surrendered their rights to the Crown.

Whilst I was searching the archives of the colony in 1878 I made what was considered a very interesting, if not an important discovery. It was that in addition to the royalists of Georgia and South Carolina some 1400 persons were conveyed from the island of Andro, on the Mosquito Coast to the island of Andros in the Bahamas. I found out that between 1784 and 1787 large grants of land were made to sixty or seventy of these persons, who were undoubtedly of English origin, as proved by their names, viz., Hall, Young, Brown, Johnson, James, North, Rigby, M'Donald, Wilson, and others. The descendants of these people now reside in New Providence, for all the above names are common there. Of the descendants of old royalist families there still exist many; and there are also many of undoubted Scotch origin, viz., the Darlings, Rattrays, Sands, Malcolms, and others.

The Bahama Islands, from a physical point of view, do not in the least resemble the West Indian Islands, and they could hardly be expected to do so. As a rule, they rise almost perpendicularly from an immense depth of water, and seem to have been formed from an accumulation of shells or small calcareous grains of sand.

At a short distance from the shore, a reef of rocks in many of the islands follows the direction of the land, and forms the boundary of the soundings. *Outside* this rampart the ocean is often immediately unfathomable; *within* it the bottom is either of a beautiful dazzling white sand or checkered with rocks covered with many-coloured sea-anemones and seaweeds, amongst which can be seen numerous fishes of inconceivable colour floating and feeding. The largest island in the Bahamas is



Andros Island, and it is the only one which possesses fresh water. As a rule, the inhabitants of the other islands sink wells to a depth at which the rain-water permeating the surface rests upon the salt water which penetrates the coral rock from the sea-shore. This fresh water rises and falls with the tide. If the well is sunk lower than a certain level, the fresh water becomes brackish by an admixture of salt water. This is an established fact. I have seen these wells dug within ten yards of the sea-shore. The geographical position of the Bahamas is important. The whole trade from North America and Europe to the Gulf of Mexico passes by the north of these islands. Steamers bound south stem the rapid current of the Florida Channel. Sailing vessels pass between Abaco and Eleuthera, through the Providence Channel, within forty miles of Nassau, into the Gulf of Florida.

All the trade from North America to the eastern parts of Cuba, to Jamaica, the Gulf of Honduras, and the northern coast of South America, passes southward to the windward of the group, and close to the shore of Inagua. The return trade and all the European trade from the same countries passes north, either through the crooked island passage or the Mayaguana or Caicos Islands.

The Bahamas, therefore, lie in the track of two great streams of trade.

During the years 1861 and 1864 these islands attained a somewhat considerable notoriety. It was the period of the last civil war in America, and the Bahamas became the depot for all the cotton shipped from the southern states, and Nassau was the chief port of the blockade runners. Owing to the financial and other facilities, given principally by the firm of Adderley & Co., three-fourths of the cotton which evaded the blockade squadron passed through this port *en route* to Manchester, thus materially diminishing

the famine consequent upon the cessation of supplies in the great centre of textile fabrics. Merchants naturally made large fortunes in this trade, and I am told that the streets of Nassau used to "flow with champagne," and that a reckless spirit of gambling resulted.

This was ten years before my time, but it will be remembered that it was from Nassau that the *Oreto*, afterwards the *Florida*, made her way to Mobile *viâ* Havana, after being released by the Vice-Admiralty Court. This vessel, with the notorious *Alabama*, ultimately cost the British Government several millions sterling in settlement of the so-called Alabama claims.

No part of any of the Bahama Islands exceeds the height of 200 feet. Their ordinary height is much less. Compared with that of Cuba, Jamaica, Trinidad, and other West Indian colonies, the vegetation of the Bahamas is insignificant. The trees that attain the greatest height are the silk-cotton trees, and perhaps the banyan, but they are all more or less dwarfed by the magnificent vegetation found farther south. The soil is very thin and sparse as a rule, and in many places it appears only in the honeycombed cavities of the surface; but in others it is very rich, consisting chiefly of vegetable mould and the detritus of the limestone rock. The porous nature of the rock supplies the vegetation with moisture from below as well as from the surface. There are three well-marked descriptions of soil—rich black soil on which fruit trees flourish, red stiff adhesive soil on which the pine-apple grows and yields luxuriantly, and white sandy soil suitable for coco-nuts and Indian corn.

As I have before observed, the present population is stated roughly to be about 52,000. The aboriginal Indian population which welcomed Columbus was drafted away by the Spaniards to work in the mines and pearl fisheries elsewhere, or was barbarously

exterminated before English colonisation took place. The white population numbers about 10,000 or 11,000, and the remainder are either coloured or black. From a physical point of view, the negro population of the Bahamas is superior in development to the black population of any West Indian island that I have been in. Men of 6 feet and over are a common sight, as well as women of 5 feet 7 or 8 inches and upwards. The negro who always accompanied me on my shooting expeditions was called "Long Bill." He stood over 6 feet 5 inches, and could cover thirteen miles in an hour and twenty minutes. He was a magnificent "savage." When I left he asked me for a tall hat and a black frock-coat. The possession of these articles of dress is the highest ambition of a black man. The negroes in the Bahamas live a free open-air life, are not addicted, as in sugar-growing colonies, to somewhat excessive nips of rum, are splendid sailors, and quite as much at home in the water as on dry land. In fact, they are a hardy, robust, amphibious race, and live chiefly on Indian and Guinea corn, vegetables, fish, and shell-fish, with an occasional ration of pork mixed with their hominy.

On the whole, the black people are a very good-tempered lot, and are thoroughly loyal. They speak English in a manner peculiar to themselves; for instance, when they say "I meet it laying on de ground," they mean "I found it." When a man says he "ketched it," he means "got it." The letter "p" or the letters "th" and "gh," are difficult to them. "Wasps" they call "wasts." Nobody goes through a gate, but "trew a gate," and when he buys tobacco he pays "treepence" for it. They have a particular objection to the possessive "s." They never say "Mr. Brown's house," but "Mr. Brown house," or "Gubnor house." All ladies, married or single, are called "Miss" or "Missy," and a gentleman is generally addressed as "Boss" or

"Buckra." "V's" and "w's" are a great puzzle to them. It is "werdent pastures," "conversion" or "wirtue," and "wice." On the other hand, the "w" is ignored. It is "vere," "vickedness," "vait," and so on. The name of God is often in their mouths by way of pious ejaculation. Ask a coloured lady her name, and she will say "Praise God," or "Tank God, my name is So-and-So."

So far as climate is concerned, that of the Bahamas may be called mild and agreeable. The summer lasts from May till the end of September, when the thermometer ranges between  $78^{\circ}$  and  $90^{\circ}$  occasionally, but from November till April the climate is charming. One can almost count upon a fine day for weeks in advance. Refreshing winds from the north cool the mid-day air, and the mornings and evenings are peculiarly fresh and invigorating. The total rainfall, the bulk of which falls between May and November, is only about fifty inches per annum. The islands are subject to hurricanes, but they do not occur with the regularity or frequency that characterise the eastern typhoon.

There has recently been a considerable improvement in the financial condition of the colony.

The revenue is now £63,000 a year. The public debt amounts to £120,000. The population is naturally increasing, and the general community ought to be an unusually law-abiding and religious one, as there are no less than 274 churches, chapels, and meeting-houses, mostly Wesleyan and Baptists, in the various islands.

The total imports into the colony in 1897 were valued at £186,000, of which £130,000 worth came from the United States of America, and £46,000 from the United Kingdom. I have alluded to the sobriety of the natives of these islands, and in proof thereof I would mention that the annual importation of rum,



gin, and other spirits amounts to only 35,000 gallons. The average consumption, therefore, per head per annum is about half a gallon. This is probably the lowest to be found in any sub-tropical colony. It may be assumed that the natives are quite alive to the evils of an excessive consumption of alcohol, and are in such matters quite able to take care of themselves. According to the report of Mr. Hosketh Bell, the exports of 1897 were valued locally at £149,000. Of these £114,000 worth went to the United States, £13,600 to Great Britain, £10,600 to France, and £6900 to Holland.

The most valuable export is that of sponge. No less than 1,228,000 lbs. weight of sponge, valued locally at £90,000, were exported in 1897. The best sponge is valued at about 40s. a cwt., and that of lesser value at about 20s. This interesting fishery gives employment to a large number of men and boys, and some 500 schooners are engaged in it. The sponges are procured from the bottom of the sea, where they grow, or are formed, adhering to rocks. They are obtained by diving, or by detaching and lifting them with a hook, in waters varying in depth from three to five fathoms. In their natural state they are covered with a black gelatinous animal substance. This used to be removed by burying the sponges in the sand for some days, and then beating them with sticks. Now they are kept on the decks of the sponging boats for three or four days, put into a crawl, after which they are cleaned and spread out on the beach until they are bleached, when they are trimmed and packed for exportation. The Bahama sponge is inferior to the Mediterranean sponge.

Some of the most beautiful fruits in the world are raised in the Bahamas, viz., pine-apples, oranges, lemons, water melons, grape fruit, guava, tamarind, avocado pear, and bananas, and these are exported in

large quantities; for example, two and a half millions of oranges were shipped in 1897, as well as 600,000 grape fruits, which are delicious. Upwards of five millions of pine-apples were also exported in the same year. A sugar-loaf pine, costing a penny-halfpenny, and cut ripe, is far superior to a hothouse pine in England, which cannot be obtained for less than a sovereign. The Colonial Secretary states that the methods of cultivation of this fruit is still shockingly primitive. As many as 20,000 plants are sometimes crammed into an acre of rocky ground, and until very lately no fertilisers have been used. When "full" the pine-apples are cut and carried on the heads of men and women to the beach and shipped in large American sailing vessels. In most cases the fruit is shipped in bulk, and large schooners will carry away from 80,000 to 150,000 pines. The condition of the fruit in the lower layers, after a voyage of ten days to Baltimore, can be better imagined than described. Factories for canning pine-apples exist in Nassau and Eleuthera.

The edible turtle is exceedingly cheap and plentiful. It costs only 3d. or 4d. a pound, and many a London alderman would, I am sure, have a good time in Nassau feasting on turtle soup and steak during its pleasant winters.

Since the abolition of slavery cotton has ceased to be cultivated to any great extent, although plants still thrive in some of the islands. The sugar-cane is cultivated in small patches, not for the production of sugar, but for chewing purposes.

The introduction, or rather extended cultivation of tobacco, was inaugurated in 1875, and had fair success. Cigars were exported for the first time in 1878. The introduction of tomato cultivation was commenced in 1875. Twelve boxes were exported in 1876, and in 1879 no less than 8130 boxes were shipped to America. Over 80,000 coco-nut trees were planted in the

Bahamas during my administration, from 1875 to 1881, and these should now be in full bearing.

I am afraid that since that time the cultivation of some of these plants and fruits and vegetables has unfortunately fallen into desuetude, and that the planters' attention has been withdrawn from them to the attractive speculation of sisal fibre, which certainly promised at one time to be a magnificent venture. Later reports attribute to it a decidedly will-o'-the-wisp character.

I am glad to hear, however, direct from the colony, that the prospects of sisal are decidedly improving. Those who selected their land carefully are doing very well, and with the present troubles in Manilla are getting handsome prices. The director of the Bahamas Sisal Plantations states that "Our sisal properties in Inagua, Abaco, and elsewhere are, generally speaking, in an excellent and flourishing condition, and with careful and economical management in the future, and the price averaging even from £20 to £25 per ton—it is now £38—a bright and encouraging return is in view of the shareholders." This opinion is also held by the Government authorities, for the Colonial Secretary writes: "The sisal industry is being invigorated by the recent rise in prices, and the 20,000 acres now under cultivation will shortly multiply by tenfold the colony's output of fibre." This is very satisfactory, for as you may have heard, a few years ago the most sanguine anticipations were entertained as to the splendid results which would follow from the extension of the cultivation of sisal hemp. It was expected that the revenue would at least be doubled or even trebled by this industry, but in 1896-97 only 400 tons were exported, and prices ruled so low that several companies and other enterprises interested in it came to utter grief.

As in all the West Indian Islands, there is no

doubt that in the Bahamas the wealth and progressive improvement of the colony depend mainly on the exertions and industry of the people, which, if well directed and energetic, will result in an increase of native exports. Experience has shown in large countries, as well as in the Bahamas, that Agricultural Boards, enabled by præmia and pecuniary assistance to improve the quality and increase the quantity of exportable produce, are cheap instruments of tangible benefit to the people. Individual as well as national welfare hinges to a very considerable extent upon agriculture, and its encouragement therefore should be an important object of the State. There are thousands of acres in the Bahamas fitted for the cultivation of citrus fruits, and there is no chance of destructive frosts, such as occur in Florida, where much English capital has from time to time been unfortunately invested.

I have referred to the equable and delightful winter climate of the Bahamas, and no mention of it would be complete without a reference to the numerous American and Canadian visitors that frequent Nassau between December and March. No less than 100,000 Americans visit Florida every year, notwithstanding that the climate and natural attractions of the Bahamas are far superior, whilst only 500 or 600 Americans and Canadians visit Nassau in the winter, who lodge with the greatest comfort at the Royal Victoria Hotel. Another very large hotel, containing over 300 beds, is now in course of erection, and there is a fine mail service between Nassau and Mamie. It is much to be desired, on every account, that this new hotel and short sea passage will be the means of attracting many more visitors to the Bahamas than formerly. It is a most perfect pleasure resort. I have had the gratification of making many friends from amongst the American visitors, and I especially recall the friendship of Dr.



William Hutchinson, a most agreeable man, and a charming writer. Like him, I can say this island of New Providence, with its capital, Nassau, "was my first love." And then he goes on to state, "For four or five successive winters I returned again to its delightful climate, its charming home circles of society, and its excellent hotels. Indeed, I became so attached to the place that it was a matter of considerable difficulty to decide which was most like home to me—this lovely island of the sunny sea or the New England city in which I live."

Nassau is reached either from New York in three and a half days by steamer, or from St. Augustine and Mamie, in Florida, in two days and thirty-four hours respectively. Anchoring off Hog Island, which forms one side of the harbour, the visitor sees a long lowland stretching westward, until its dark-green foliage is lost in the sea. Opposite it the ruins of the once great fortress of Fincastle and the Water Battery stand out in bold relief. On the left the lighthouse, with its fine lantern, and in the centre the red roofs, spires, and many flag-staffs of the town, that climbs up from the shore step by step to a ridge crowned by Government House, the Royal Victoria Hotel, and a range of handsome residences.

Here and there and everywhere fine branches of the coco-nut palm and the sea-grape trees, with their broad leaves, bend as they have done for centuries towards the white foam which lazily creeps up the sloping beach.

Between the lighthouse and the shore, in fact throughout the many isles and cays of the Bahamas, is the most beautiful water imaginable, perfectly transparent to a depth of fifty feet or more, of dark ultramarine blue or a living emerald green.

A traveller can live in luxury at the Nassau hotels for four dollars gold a day, and comfortably at a

boarding-house for twelve dollars a week. There are numberless yachts. Horses and carriages are easily obtainable at fair prices. A visit to what are called the Sea Gardens is one of the first trips made by visitors.

These marine gardens are made up of the most exquisite submerged coral bowers and grottoes, rivalling the choicest productions of the vegetable world in form and colour. It is difficult to believe one's eyes when looking through a water-glass. All their unexpected beauties are revealed for the first time.

The fish that dart about or lie sleeping in these coral caves harmonise well with the general beauty of the scene, for their colouring is gorgeous and their motions extremely graceful. Some are yellow, some emerald, scarlet, some silver and satin, others striped, ringed, tipped, or spotted with all the colours of the rainbow.

If the visitor is fond of fishing, the inhabitants of these transparent seas offer continued delight. They are easily caught in a novel way. You bait your hook and drop it down thirty, forty, or fifty feet through water so clear that you can watch the descent of the hook through a water-glass, and see what sort of fish and what colour you prefer to tempt with the bait. The follower of Izaak Walton lowers and lowers away, past a dog-fish who is watching for something better, past a small hammer-headed shark who is watching the dog-fish, down to where brilliant specimens of the blue-fish or squirrel-fish are playing on the sands below. Then with great deliberation the tempting bait is placed directly under the nose of the intended victim, the bait is seized, and with a jerk and a pull, up comes the very fish selected, unless—which is often the case—he is snapped up on his ascent by the watchful shark or dog-fish. Shark-fishing is also very exciting sport, and sharks outside the harbour are numerous.

It is asserted and credited that the harbour itself is guarded by a shark known as the "harbour-master," which is over 15 feet in length. This may or may not be true, but I do not think that any one who has been upset on the bar has ever reached the shore alive, and it cannot be distant more than 200 yards. The bathing at Hog Island and the Eastern Fort is delicious, and for yachtsmen the Bahama Islands offer untold attractions.

The islands are, notwithstanding the absence of rivers and fresh water, very fertile. The principal woods produced are mahogany, lignum-vitæ, iron, mastic, ebony, biazetto, logwood, satinwood, and others. A wood called horseflesh is in great repute for ships' timbers, being hard and practically everlasting.

Animal life is restricted to the wild cat, raccoon, and iguana. Flamingoes, wild ducks, and snipe are plentiful at Andros, and several of the out islands are noted for their fine pigeon-shooting. Ambergris is occasionally found on the shores of some of the islands, and the pink pearl of commerce is frequently discovered in the conch, which forms one of the articles of food of the native. Conch pearls of the value of £80 have been found. The Bahamas have for this reason been styled "the land of the pink pearl," as I mentioned at the beginning of this paper. I will not vouch for the truth of the story, so far as the dream is concerned, but an old woman declared to me in 1879 that on a certain night she had dreamt that she had found a pearl. She went to the market the first thing in the following morning and bought a conch for a farthing. On taking it to her hut and breaking it open she actually did find a pearl, which I saw, and which she sold to Mr. Hall the banker for £15 or £20.

Nearly all the black people in the Bahamas are peasant proprietors or owners of fishing, turtling, and sponging boats, and they are contented with their lot so

long as it yields to them produce sufficient for their own wants. The largest island of the group, as I have said, is Andros, which contains 500 square miles. Part of it is unexplored, but it has considerable resources capable of improvement. In fact, the development of the resources of all the islands leaves much to be desired. An American gentleman once made the remark to an acquaintance of mine, "Why, Andros alone could supply a great portion of the States with fresh vegetables in winter." The statement is correct, but no such attempt has ever been made. The population of Andros still numbers but 3450 souls. It only requires enterprise for a number of small industries to be created, which singly might not be of much value, but which collectively would add greatly to the advantage of the people. That enterprise is not yet forthcoming in the Bahamas at all events. Over and over again have I told the natives, that with the boon of freedom comes the corresponding responsibility of labour of some kind, without which the advantages of freedom cannot be secured—that in whatever rank of life they may be, the path of honest persevering labour is the one they must, to some extent, follow. I have begged them to remember the high authority which says, "If a man does not work, neither shall he eat," but I fear that all such appeals fall on deaf ears. There is no getting them out of the old grooves. They are satisfied, and, notwithstanding the official statement that "the peasant proprietors are turning their attention to the cultivation of vegetables, oranges, and pine-apples," there remains an almost general ignorance of the mere rudiments of improved agriculture, which is not likely to be dispelled within this century.

In disorders of the nervous system Nassau is one of the most perfect sanitariums in the world. The regular temperature, the pleasant social surroundings, the comfortable quarters, the enforced abstinence from



business cares, so relieve the pressure upon overstrained nervous centres, that equilibrium and their marked improvement and restored health are bound to ensue.

Under all these circumstances you can readily believe me when I repeat that I spent nearly the happiest six years of my life at Nassau, Bahamas. The Assembly and Council and the people were pleased to say that my administration there was "a brilliant one," that I had "restored the balance between revenue and expenditure, and had established the prosperity of the Bahamas on a sure footing." The principal newspaper expressed a hope that "during a prosperous career I should have a kindly recollection at times of the far-away isle in which I had gained my first experience as a colonial governor." Events subsequent to June 1880 proved that that hope was at all events partly fulfilled, for I revisited the Bahamas in 1884, and I still retain, and ever shall retain while life lasts, a grateful and fervid recollection of those long-past happy days.

In closing this paper, it is only fair to recite to you, with a view of showing the other side of the picture, M'Cabe's Curse, as well as the reply to it, entitled "A Soldier's Reminiscences of Nassau." M'Cabe was a man with a diseased liver; he hated Nassau, and naturally was hated by the community, and, curiously enough, he died there, and left his bones there, as in my opinion he richly deserved to do.

#### M'CABE'S CURSE.

"Land of cursed rocks and stones,  
Land where many leave their bones,  
Land of rascals, rogues, and pedlars,  
Busy scandalising meddlers ;  
Land of poverty and want,  
Where pride is plenty, money scant,  
Take this, my very heartiest curse,  
And, if I could, I'd give you worse ;

For all your natives, I know well,  
 Love me as I love hell ;  
 And to them I'm just as civil,  
 And wish them all sent to the devil.  
 May whirlwinds, earthquakes, tempest, rain,  
 Fever, ague, want, and pain,  
 Poverty and famine fell  
 Drive them all to hottest hell,  
 And when they're dead, the worthless dogs,  
 May they be rooted up by hogs,  
 Or lying in their lodgings narrow,  
 May land-crabs feast upon their marrow."

This spiteful effusion evoked the following  
 reply :—

A SOLDIER'S REPLY TO M'CABE.

"Land with sky of azure blue,  
 Bright-eyed girls and warm hearts too ;  
 Where open doors from morn to eve,  
 A kind and ready welcome give ;  
 Where hospitality's a passion,  
 And tea-parties are all the fashion.  
 Oft have I gone at sunny noon  
 Down to the lakes for gay maroon ;  
 Returned to town at night's advance,  
 To join the light and mazy dance ;  
 There passed the fleeting hours away,  
 Till bugle-call proclaimed the day.  
 Though friends I've met full many a score,  
 None equal those of Nassau shore.  
 Fair isle, may shaddock, orange, lime  
 Ever adorn your happy clime ;  
 And Heaven, too, its bounteous store  
 In choicest gifts upon you pour ;  
 In my heart's depth where'er my lot  
 Thy memory'll be the greenest spot."

# JAMAICA <sup>1</sup>

By FRANK CUNDALL

## I. GEOGRAPHY

JAMAICA is an island situated towards the north of the Caribbean Sea, and in the centre of what Americans call the American Mediterranean, *i.e.* the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea conjoined. It is the third in size (Cuba and Haiti being larger and Puerto Rico smaller) of the four Greater Antilles, which probably once formed one island, but were never connected with the mainland. They consist of a disconnected chain of mountains, of which about two-thirds of their altitude are now beneath the sea. Considered from the plain from which they rise, they exceed any heights in Europe or North America; and if their submerged slopes be added, they must be classed amongst the most lofty mountains of the world. They differ from most of the great ranges of the world in that they are not composed of barren rock, but have cultivable soil up to their very summits. The latitude of Kingston is  $17^{\circ} 57'$  north, and the longitude is 5 hours 7 min. west of Greenwich. Kingston harbour, the finest in the West Indies, has a total area of about sixteen square miles, of which about seven square miles have a depth of from seven to ten fathoms. Should a ship canal ever unite the Atlantic with the Pacific, the island would undoubtedly be considerably increased in importance.

<sup>1</sup> Written in 1895; revised in 1899.

The island of Cuba, now under the control of the United States, is 90 miles to the north; and Cape Gracios à Dios, in the Mosquito Territory, 400 miles south-west of the west end of the island, is the nearest part of the continent of America. Jamaica is 4207 square miles in extent, having an extreme length of 144 miles, and an extreme width of 49 miles. In its general geological formation, the foundation of the island is composed of igneous and metamorphic rocks, overlying which are several distinct formations—white and yellow limestone and carbonaceous shales; some being mineral-bearing.

Iron and copper exist in many parts. Lead, zinc, manganese, and gold are found in small quantities. Mining operations have been carried on from time to time, but with no great success. Throughout the interior there is a great abundance of good clay suitable for brick-making and ordinary pottery; and there is a good supply of lime and ochres, the latter of which might be made of considerable commercial importance.

The island is very mountainous, especially in the eastern part. The Blue Mountain Peak, 7360 feet high, is the highest point in Jamaica, and indeed in the British West Indies. It is only 200 feet lower than the Pico de Tarquino, the highest point in Cuba; but more than one mountain range in the neighbouring island of Haiti overtops it by upwards of 1000 feet; Monte Tina, the highest point in the Antilles, rising to 10,300 feet high.

There are numerous savannas or plains on the sea-board, and also a few inland shut in by hills on all sides.

Jamaica is divided into three counties, Surrey, Middlesex, and Cornwall, and exceeds in area the English counties of the same names by about the extent of Hampshire; but its population is less than



a third of that of those four English counties, omitting London.

The population was, according to the census in 1891, as follows:—

White . . . . .	14,692
Coloured . . . . .	121,955
Black . . . . .	488,624
Coolies . . . . .	10,116
Chinese . . . . .	481
Colour not stated . . . . .	3,623
	<hr/>
	639,491

The total estimated population on the 31st March 1899 was 730,725, giving a population of 173 to the square mile. Jamaica is thus more populous in proportion to its size than Spain, Turkey, Russia, and other European countries. The population of Cuba was, previous to the late war, estimated to be 36 to the square mile. That of the republic of San Domingo is about 34.

The births for 1898–99 numbered 27,648, giving a rate of 38.13 per thousand on the estimated mean population. The deaths for the same period numbered 15,290. The rate, 21.08 per thousand of the mean population, compares favourably with that of many English towns.

Included in the government of Jamaica are the Turk's and Caicos Islands, which geographically form part of the Bahama Islands, to which they at one time belonged; the Cayman Islands, which lie from 110 to 150 miles north-west of the west end; the Morant Cays, about 33 miles south-east of the east end of the island; and the Pedro Cays, about 40 miles south-west of Portland Point, the most southerly point of the island.

The inhabitants of the Turk's and Caicos Islands

(about 5000 in number) live almost entirely by the salt industry, the salt being made from the sea by evaporation in salt-ponds, which form a large part of the area of the islands; the bulk of it going to the United States: the sea around the Caicos Islands produces sponges, and the conch from which the pink-pearl comes. The Cayman Islanders, who are in the happy position of having no pauper roll, live chiefly by turtling and by the exportation of phosphates. The Morant and Pedro Cays, which are uninhabited, are leased for the purposes of collecting guano, boobies' eggs, and turtle. Turk's Islands are reached in two days by the steamers which go monthly from Jamaica to Halifax.

Jamaica and its dependencies comprise a little more than a third of the area, and contain nearly a half of the population of the British West India Islands. But Jamaica is only about a tenth of the size of Cuba, and a seventh of that of Haiti.

## II. WHAT IS KNOWN OF THE COLONY PRIOR TO ITS INCORPORATION INTO THE BRITISH EMPIRE

When Columbus, in 1492 and the succeeding years, on his search for a western route to India—a search the memory of which ever lives in the title “West Indies”—discovered the New World and explored the Antillean Islands and a small part of the southern continent of America, he found them peopled by several tribes of natives, of which the most important were the Caribs and the Arawâks. The former, a fierce, man-eating people, who have given their name to the Caribbean Islands and Caribbean Sea, inhabited the mainland in the neighbourhood of Guiana, and the Lesser Antilles (the Windward and the Leeward Islands, as we now call them); and the latter, a quiet, inoffensive tribe, as their name (meal-eaters) signified,

resided in the Greater Antilles—Puerto Rico, Haiti, Jamaica, and Cuba—whither they had probably come in prehistoric times from the southern continent of America.

The Caribs had, by the last decade of the fifteenth century, driven the Arawâks from the Lesser Antilles, and would probably, but for Spanish intervention, have forced them to leave also the larger islands.

On his first voyage, Columbus discovered several of the Bahama Islands, Cuba, and Haiti. On his second, starting in 1493, he discovered the northern islands of the Lesser Antilles (the present Leeward Islands), and, after revisiting Haiti and Cuba, struck south in search of an island which he was told possessed much gold, and discovered Jamaica on the 3rd of May in the following year. He said of it, "that there was no gold in it or any other metal, although the island was otherwise a paradise, and worth more than gold." On his landing at Dry Harbour, on the next day, the natives offered some slight resistance; but this was probably due rather to timidity, which had been accentuated by the persecutions of the Caribs, than to any active hostility to the strangers from the skies, as they considered the white men to be, when they found them unlike their cruel foes. They were bitterly undeceived by subsequent events; but for the moment they were easily pleased by gifts of beads, combs, knives, hawks'-bells, and other nicknacks, and freely brought fruits to the Spaniards, and gave them all the help they could.

On his fourth and last voyage, Columbus ran his weather-beaten and worm-eaten caravels aground in St. Ann's Bay; and, during an enforced residence of twelve months, he and those with him would, under ordinary circumstances, have had ample opportunity of studying the habits and customs of the natives. But he himself was racked by gout, worn out in mind

and body by travel and by revolt amongst his followers, disappointed in the treatment he had received from Ferdinand and Isabella, and too anxious about the future to devote much time to descriptive accounts; and the reminiscences of Mendez, one of his companions, are taken up for the most part with that worthy's own achievements. Moreover, to the absence of gold, which metal formed the principal attraction of Haiti in the Spaniards' eyes, is due the comparative inattention with which Jamaica was treated by the Spanish historians. What writers have failed to tell us about the inhabitants of Jamaica, we must, therefore, in part supply from the accounts of the Arawâks in Guiana, where they have survived until to-day.

Columbus gave to the islands which he discovered names in honour of his sovereigns, the saints, some towns in Spain, or the day of discovery; but in some cases the aboriginal names have survived. Jamaica is one of these. The word is thought to be composed of two native words meaning wood and water, implying fertility.

We can, without much difficulty, picture to ourselves the appearance of the island as Columbus saw it, for there are many tracts of virgin forest and uncleared bush which must to-day resemble the features which they presented to the explorers of 1494; and the humblest form of a house to-day is not, when viewed from a distance and through trees, very different in outward appearance from the habitation of the Arawâk. Seen from the sea, the physical features of the island were of course what they are to-day. It is probable that in parts the trees and undergrowth were as thick as they were in Guadeloupe, where Columbus tells us some of his seamen lost their way for days; and this thick growth was conducive to a humid atmosphere, and a less parched appearance in the drier seasons.



Then as now the giant cotton-tree, one of the few deciduous trees in the island, reared its head above its fellow-trees ; and prominent in the landscape were, to name but a few, the coco-palm, the calabash, the antidote cacao, the locust-tree, the prickly pear, the allspice-yielding pimento, and the guava ; in the interior were the wild olive, the lace-bark, the yacca and the mahoe (both beautiful cabinet woods), the mountain guava, and the ragoon ; while the seaside grape, with its large, decorative leaves and hanging bunches of dark-blue berries, was a prominent feature on the seashore.

Then, as now, the scene was made gay with the annatto, with its rosy-coloured flowers and purplish pods, the West Indian ebony with its yellow flowers, the pale blue of the lignum-vitæ bloom, the golden bronze of the under-surface of the leaves of the star-apple, the hanging purple bunches of the bastard cabbage-bark tree, the yellow and purple portulacas, the yellow "kill-buckra" weed, the pink shameweed, the red and yellow of the Barbados pride, the yellow of the Jerusalem-thorn, the purple pyramid of the mountain-pride, and the brilliant golden candelabra-like spike of the coratoc ; by the various specimens of ipomœa, with their several blooms of white, yellow, red, and purple, the rose-coloured Jamaica-rose, the white trumpet-flower, the bright red Indian-shot, the blue Jamaica forget-me-not, and many another brilliantly-flowered tree, creeper, and shrub. Some afford excellent woods for cabinetmakers and carpenters, but their practical use is almost nullified by the cost of cutting and carting ; others yield dyes, or are useful in cookery and medicine.

Amongst the chief food-plants and fruit-bearing trees were the cassava, the Indian's chief staple of food ; the mammee, with fruit of a russet brown, larger than an orange : arrowroot ; the guava, the fruit of

which, made into a jelly, is world-famous; the naseberry, with a fruit not unlike a medlar both in appearance and taste; and the papaw, with its straight stem and fruits like pumpkins hanging just beneath the crown of leaves.

Of trees and plants now common in the island which we know were not here when Columbus landed may be mentioned the sugar-cane; the pindar nut and cherimoyer, which came from South America; the jack-fruit and ginger, from the East Indies; the ever-useful and beautiful bamboo, which came from the neighbouring island of Española (or Haiti, as we now call it); the orange, lime, lemon, and citron from Spain; coffee and kola and akee from tropical Africa; various kinds of yams from Africa and the East Indies; coco from Polynesia; the shaddock from China; the cinnamon and the mango, now one of the commonest trees on the island, which came to Jamaica in 1782; genip, a native of Trinidad; logwood from Honduras, guinea-grass from West Africa; the nutmeg, rice; and the bread-fruit, which was brought in 1793 by "Bread-fruit" Bligh, who possibly also brought the banana, although it was in the Leeward Islands at the time of the English occupation of Jamaica; and the plaintain was in the island when Blome wrote in 1672. It is not certain whether the coco-nut palm was here or not.

That in the exchange of trees and fruits between the old world and the new, the gain was not all on the side of the old, was evident to Acosta, who published, about 1590, his *Historie Natural y Moral de las Indias*, a work full of valuable information about the state of the new world at the close of the sixteenth century; he says: "The *Indians* have received more profit, and have bin better recompensed in plants that have bin broght from *Spaine*, than in other merchandize, for that those few that are carried from the *Indies* into *Spaine*, growe little there, and multiply not; and con-

trariwise the great number that have been carried from *Spain* to the *Indies* prosper well and multiply greatly." And it is interesting to note that, of the principal crops of Jamaica of to-day, that of the pimento is the only one from an indigenous plant.

Of animal life in Jamaica, there were amongst the mammals only the coney, which is fast becoming extinct; a mute, dog-like animal, which the Indians called *alco*, and of which no trace exists to-day, and possibly the rat. It is said that the armadillo was once found in all the West India Islands, and the raccoon was there as late as Sir Hans Sloane's visit in 1687. But the opossum and the peccary, though formerly in the Caribbean Islands, were not known in Jamaica.

The coney, which is very shy and difficult to catch, is now only seen in the rocky recesses of the mountains of Portland and St. Thomas, and is seen there but rarely. In appearance, it is something between a rat and a rabbit; it is about six inches high at the shoulder, and dark brown in colour.

The natives used as food, besides the coney, the iguana lizard, and probably the mountain crab, which is still considered one of the delicacies of the island; but it is thought that they did not eat the flesh of the manatee and only rarely that of the turtle; the former is not now nearly so common as it was.

There were no horses, cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, or poultry in the island when Columbus discovered it, all of which were introduced by the Spaniards at a later date.

Of bird-life there were the same specimens as we know them to-day, only in greater profusion—the parrots being especial favourites with the Indians, who kept them in their huts. But Columbus was probably exaggerating when he said that flocks of them hid the sun.

Forty-three of the birds of Jamaica are presumed

to be peculiar to the island : the chief are the quail, the mountain partridge, the Jamaica heron, ducks and doves and pigeons, several of which are very good eating, the ring-tail pigeon being considered one of the island's chief delicacies.

The humming-birds are perhaps the most noticeable, from their beauty and graceful movements, as well as from the fact that they do not hesitate to hover around the flowering creepers that grow on almost every dwelling.

One of the most interesting features in the natural history of Jamaica has been the introduction of the mongoose, which was imported in 1872 to keep down the rats which were so harmful in the cane-fields. The mongoose did his work well, but unfortunately he did not stop there. He then turned his attention to the snakes, lizards, small birds, turtle eggs, domestic poultry and their eggs, and ground provisions ; and became almost as great a scourge as the rabbits in Australia or the historic rats of Hamelin. By the destruction of the small birds, the mongoose is said to be the cause of the immense increase of ticks, the greatest pest in the island. Although the mongoose is not now perhaps such a nuisance as he was a few years since, the history of his introduction into Jamaica is a warning to any who would lightly upset the balance of nature in any country.

Then, as now, the sea around the coast held a fair supply of food fishes, excellent in their way, but lacking for the most part the flavour of fishes in temperate waters. An experiment made in 1898 proved conclusively that neither the sea-bottom nor the supply of fish is conducive to successful fishery operations on a large scale. The mountain mullet, the finest of the river fishes, rivals many English fish in delicacy.

As in Haiti, the natives of Jamaica were ruled



over by caciques or chieftains. The estimates of historians of the number of inhabitants in the West Indian Islands differ widely. Las Casas, who says that the island abounded with inhabitants as an ant-hill with ants, puts them down at six millions. But Peter Martyr gives but 1,200,000 to Española, and, taking this as a guide, there would probably have been about 600,000 in Jamaica—or, roughly speaking, a little less than its present population. Of these, but few were left when the English took the island in 1655. Until 1895, but few remains had been discovered to testify to the existence of a tribe which not so very long ago lived by gathering the fruits of the land and sea of Jamaica. During that and the following years several collections of Indian remains were found. They all supply objects similar in character, and giving evidence of no very high advance in civilisation or the arts; being considerably below those of Mexico and Peru. They consist for the most part of petaloid or almond-shaped polished celts of metamorphic or igneous rocks, found somewhat abundantly; circular or oval, shallow, unglazed bowls of baked pottery, with but crude ornamentation, used in the preparation of food, and some as mortuary vessels for the heads of their chiefs; calcedony beads; stone and wooden images and amulets rudely carved; rock-carvings and rock-pictures; and a few shell and flint implements and mealing-stones.

Judged by the English standard, Indians are short in stature. The Arawâks of Guiana to-day are described as being of a red cinnamon in colour. The hair on the scalp is thick, long, very straight, and very black. The features of the face are strikingly like those familiarly known as Chinese (Mongolian), and the expression is decidedly gentle. Physically they are weak, and life hardly ever exceeds fifty years. The natives of Jamaica—as a few skulls found from time to time testify—possessed, in common with other

West Indian tribes, the peculiarity of tying boards on to the foreheads of their children in such a way that the skulls assumed and permanently retained an extraordinarily flat shape.

Peter Martyr, who heard it spoken, said that the language in the Greater Antilles was "soft and not less liquid than the Latin," and "rich in vowels and pleasant to the ear." Of words of West Indian origin, those most frequently in use in the English language are barbecue, buccaneer, canoe, Carib and its derivative cannibal, guava, hammock, hurricane, iguana, maize, manatee, pirogue, potato, and tobacco.

Columbus has told us of a cacique of Cuba who believed in a future state dependent on one's actions in this world; but Mr. in Thurn has found nothing of the kind amongst the Indians of Guiana, and it is probable that Columbus's guide from Guanahani (Watling Island) only partially understood the cacique, or that Columbus only partially understood his guide. Their houses were primitive alike in shape and construction. In Jamaica, they were probably circular, and were provided with walls of wattle-work plastered with mud, and with a high-pitched roof of palm-leaves; they probably had no windows. The Indians sleep on hammocks. The weapons of the Arawâks of Jamaica and the other large islands consisted of darts and war-clubs; but they apparently did not possess bows and arrows, which were the form of weapons prepared by the Caribs, and the use of which gave them a great advantage over their more peaceful foes.

Ornaments were more worn by the men than the women. Painting was the simplest form of ornamentation; the colours used being blue, black, carmine, white and yellow, derived from plants and earths. They wore necklets of hog's teeth and stone beads, crowns of feathers in their heads, aprons of palm-leaves or woven cotton; and bands round their arms

and legs. Their chief occupations and means of living were hunting and fishing and agricultural pursuits, with, in some cases, a certain amount of trading. As they required nothing more than canoes for travelling on the water, simple houses to live in, baskets for domestic purposes, hammocks for rest, rude weapons of the chase, and implements such as hatchets and chisels, earthen vessels, and a few ornaments and articles of dress, these, with a few crude rock-carvings, formed the sum total of their arts and manufactures.

The Spaniards remained in possession of the island of Jamaica for about a century and a half. At Columbus's unfortunate suggestion, criminals had been sent as colonists to the New World on his third voyage, and this class of people, with needy adventurers whose sole aim was the acquisition of riches, proved no good material out of which to form a colony. Columbus, too, unhappily proposed that cannibals and prisoners of war should be sent to Spain for the good of their souls in exchange for cattle; and this expatriation, together with the cruelties practised on them by the Spaniards in their greed for gold, soon led to the extermination of the natives.

Then the fateful step was taken of importing slaves direct from Africa, and an evil legacy was bequeathed to the West Indies. The direct effects of this bequest were not to be removed for upwards of three centuries, and the indirect effects are still all too apparent.

It is estimated that when Jamaica fell into the hands of the English, the population of the capital was half Spanish and Portuguese or their descendants, and half slaves; but it is a curious fact that a negro is mentioned as holding the position of priest of the Romish Church.

The more important islands of Cuba and Haiti, to say nothing of the rich mines of South America, offered greater attractions to the Spaniards than did Jamaica,

where—then, as now—the field had to be ploughed before the harvest could be reaped.

Beyond the introduction of several kinds of useful fruits, and of horses, cattle, and pigs, and the names, now corrupted,<sup>1</sup> of many settlements, rivers, mountains, and plains, there is now little more to speak of the Spanish occupation, than of that of the aborigines, who were practically exterminated under their rule. Towns and churches were built, but they have all passed away; and there are now but scanty remains of Spanish masonry in the island; none of great importance.

During the Spanish occupation, Sir Anthony Shirley, when on a buccaneering expedition, made a descent on the island in 1596–97. Landing on the south side, he marched inland “with such poor resistance, that with little or no danger he plundered the island, burnt St. Jago, and was, while he stayed, absolute master of the whole.” But his stay was but short.

### III. COLONIAL HISTORY

If Spain utilised criminals in the colonisation of her possessions in the New World, some of the men whom Cromwell sent out under Penn and Venables, to “obtain an establishment in the West Indies, which is possessed by the Spaniards,” in order to put a check on Spanish arrogance, were little better. One of their number characterised them as “Hectors and knights of the blade, with common cheats, thieves, cut purses, and such-like leud persons;” and, in connection with the cowardice at San Domingo of Adjutant-General Jackson, who had his sword broken over his head as an example to others, he stated that, in his opinion, “if all of like nature had been so dealt with, there would not have been many whole swords

<sup>1</sup> Mont Agua has become Moneague; Boca del Agua, Bog Walk; Agua alta, Wagwater, &c.



left in the army ;” and the wife of Venables, who kept a journal, said, “ a wicked army it was, and sent out without arms or provisions.” But, after their miserably unsuccessful attempt to take San Domingo, Penn and Venables, joint commanders unfaithful alike to Cromwell and to each other, were fortunate enough to find in Jamaica a cowardly lot of Spaniards, who gave up their island home without striking a blow, not, however, before they had cheated the invaders into letting them get away with what riches they possessed. And from that day to this, amidst all the vicissitudes and contests on sea and land in the West Indies between England and France and Spain, when the smaller islands, with the exception of Barbados, frequently changed their nationalities, Jamaica has—thanks probably to Rodney—remained in the possession of the British Crown ; and the history of the influence of the English on the African race during that period may be perhaps better studied in Jamaica than in any other island.

The space at disposal will only admit of the briefest abstract of the principal events in the history of the island.

After a short period of military command, General D'Oyley was appointed Jamaica's first civil governor, in 1661. The capital, which was first at Cagua (Port Royal), was, in 1664, removed to St. Jago de la Vega (Spanish Town), where, in that year, the first general representative assembly of the people met. In that year, too, a census of the population was taken, which amounted to 4205 ; but by 1698 the number had risen to 47,365 souls, of whom 40,000 were black. In 1670, Jamaica was formally ceded to England by the treaty of Madrid.

✓ When Blome wrote in 1672 there were 70 sugar-works, 60 indigo-works and 60 cacao-walks in the island.

On the 7th of June 1692, Port Royal, then the

finest town in the West Indies, and one of the richest places in the world—by reason of the treasures brought in by the buccaneers, whose head-quarters it was—was destroyed by an earthquake; which event led to the development of the town of Kingston. In 1694 the island was invaded by the French under Admiral Du Casse, but the invaders were driven back; and in 1702 poor Benbow died at Port Royal of wounds received in the engagement with Du Casse off Santa Marta: he lies buried in Kingston church. In 1711 the western part of the island was visited by a severe storm; the parish of Westmoreland alone sustained damage to the extent of £700,000. In 1730, 1732, and 1734 there were difficulties with the Maroons,<sup>1</sup> the descendants of the negroes belonging to the Spaniards who had fled to the wilder inland parts of the island; but in 1738 a treaty of peace was entered into with them, and settlements were assigned to them in various parts of the island. In 1744 Savanna-la-Mar was totally destroyed by a storm and earthquake, and Port Royal, Kingston, and Old Harbour suffered. In 1760 there was a formidable rebellion amongst the slaves in St. Mary, and about 600 were transported to the Bay of Honduras. The expedition which was sent in 1778 by Governor Dalling of Jamaica against San Juan de Nicaragua is memorable from the fact that Nelson, who was then in official residence at Port Royal, took part in it. The expedition suffered severely from malarial fever, and Nelson only escaped with his life. In 1782 Rodney achieved his great victory over De Grasse off Dominica, and thus saved Jamaica from possible capture. The Rodney memorial at Spanish Town testifies to Jamaica's gratitude to that great naval commander. In 1795–96 there was further trouble with the Maroons.

<sup>1</sup> From the Spanish *Cimarron*, wild, unruly, literally living in the mountain-tops; from *cima*, a mountain-top.

In 1807, on the abolition of the African slave trade, occurred the first alteration in the condition of slave labour, on which the prosperity of the West Indies had been built up. (At this time one-third of the imports of the United Kingdom came from the West Indies. Now they contribute less than a two-hundredth part.) About twenty years later, during the administration of the Duke of Manchester, the controversy began between the Imperial Government and the House of Assembly in connection with the measures proposed by the former for improving the condition of the slave population. In May 1833 a law was passed by the Imperial Government, which declared that from and after August 1834 all slaves in the colonial possessions of Great Britain should be free for ever, subject to an intermediate state of six years' apprenticeship; this however was shortened to four years, and on the 1st of August 1838 the total abolition of slavery took place in Jamaica. The sum of £6,149,934 was awarded to Jamaica slave-holders in compensation for the manumission of their property, *i.e.* upwards of a quarter of a million of slaves; but much of this money found its way into the pockets of merchants in London who held mortgages on the estates, and did not benefit the island.

In 1828, ten years before the abolition of slavery, the export of sugar was 101,575 hogsheads. In 1848, ten years after it, it had fallen to 42,212 hogsheads. In coffee the fall was much greater, from 22,216,780 lbs. in 1828 to 5,681,941 lbs. in 1848.

As an immediate result of the abolition of slavery, need was felt for more labourers, and in 1842 the first batch of coolie immigrants arrived from India, but the system did not prove lasting. In 1854 the experiment was tried of bringing Chinese, but without much success, as a large number returned to their native land. The question of East Indian immigration

was reopened in 1858, and again in 1869, when the present system of indentured service was established. There was no importation between the years 1895 and 1899, when 615 coolies arrived in one ship. It is a sign of the times that the majority of them went on to banana plantations instead of sugar estates as formerly. Coolies who have worked out their indentures frequently start as shop-keepers. They are a law-abiding people, except when jealousy and revenge incite to personal violence.

In 1845 a railway was opened from Kingston to Angels, a distance of about fifteen miles. In 1860 a line of mail-steamers was subsidised to run between Kingston and New York. This, the first steam communication from a port of the British West Indies to America, offered facilities for the shipment of Jamaica fruits, which had hitherto had no marketable value for exportation; and in 1868 the private fruit trade between Port Antonio and Boston, which has proved such a boon to the island in recent years, was started.

In 1865, during the governorship of Mr. Eyre, the outbreak at Morant Bay occurred, when the Custos of St. Thomas-in-the-East, and eighteen other gentlemen, were killed. George William Gordon, a member of the House of Assembly, was tried by court-martial and hanged. But Governor Eyre was recalled; and, in the following year, Crown government was organised by Sir John Peter Grant.

In 1869, by the opening of telegraphic communication between Jamaica and Havana, it first became possible to send telegrams from the island to Europe. In 1870 the Episcopal Church was disestablished, and the seat of Government was removed from Spanish Town to Kingston.

In 1891 an exhibition was held in Kingston, which did something towards enlightening the peasant population of the island about other countries, especially



the United States and Canada, and towards stirring them up to take an interest in their own island; as well as bringing Jamaica more prominently to the notice of American, Canadian, and English travellers. At most international exhibitions the sections of the countries holding them exceed the foreign sections both in size and importance. This was, unfortunately, not the case in Jamaica; but, on such occasions, a purely agricultural country is naturally at a disadvantage when compared with countries rich in arts and manufactures.

In 1894 the railway was extended to Montego Bay, a distance of 113 miles from Kingston, and the branch to Port Antonio was opened in 1896. Thirty years ago it took two days, and cost about £10, to drive from Kingston to Montego Bay. To-day, one can travel in a comfortable third-class carriage, and get there in 5½ hours, at a cost of 8s. Unfortunately the railway has not yet met with sufficient support to render it financially successful, but if the improvements which have been recently recommended are made, there is reason to hope that it will not only become a leading factor in the development of the island's industries, but will soon cease to be a burden on the finances of the colony.

In the years 1896, 1897, and 1898 considerable depression in trade was experienced. This, it is hoped, is now passing away. Efforts to establish a fast line of fruit-bearing steamers to England promise to be successful; and negotiations are pending for reciprocal tariff arrangements with the United States, and the development of trade with Canada.

It may be interesting here to call to mind some of the men known in literature, science, or art, who have visited and resided in Jamaica from time to time, and who have had more or less effect on its social life.

Gage, the traveller who, in his "English-American," did much to draw the attention of England to Spain's

possessions in the New World, sailed in Penn and Venables' expedition, and died in Jamaica in 1656.

The "Jamaica Viewed" (1661) of the Rev. Edmund Hiekeringill, a somewhat remarkable man, by turns an army chaplain, a Quaker, a deist, a naval captain, and lastly a rector, contains a map which is probably the oldest English map of the island. Dr. Henry Stubbe, the second keeper of the Bodleian Library, was, at the Restoration, ejected from office; but he nevertheless received, in 1662, the appointment of physician to the island of Jamaica, where he remained till 1665.

Dampier, by turns pirate, circumnavigator, and captain in the navy, spent about a twelvemonth in 1674-75 managing an estate in the island.

Sir Hans Sloane, the celebrated founder of the British Museum, came in 1687 in the suite of the Duke of Albemarle to Jamaica, where, in fifteen months, he collected 800 plants, most of which were new species. Of these he published, in 1696, a catalogue in Latin, and in 1707 and 1725 he published two large volumes, entitled "A Voyage to the Islands Madera, Barbados, Nievis, St. Christophers, and Jamaica, with the Natural History of . . . the last of those Islands," with many engravings from crayon drawings.

Smollett, the novelist, lived for a time (1741-44) in Jamaica, and married a lady owning property there. Patrick Browne's "Civil and Natural History" (1756), dealing almost entirely with natural history, was the result of several years' study of the geology, botany, and zoology of the island.

"Peter Pindar" was for a time the incumbent of a living in Vere. William Beckford, the cousin of his namesake, the celebrated author of "Vathek," was a member of one of the wealthiest and most talented families which have ever been connected with the island. He spent thirteen years (between 1773 and 1788) on his various estates. His "Descriptive Ac-

count" (1790) was dated from the Fleet prison, a strange residence for one who could claim kinship with the owner of Fonthill. Beckford employed in Jamaica an artist, George Robertson, who made a series of good views of the island (engravings of which were published by Boydell) and also Philip Wickstead, a portrait painter, a pupil of Zoffany.

Edward Long, the historian of the island (1774), was a great-grandson of the patriot, Samuel Long, who, coming out as a lieutenant in D'Oyley's regiment, rose to be Speaker of the House of Assembly and Chief-Justice.

Bryan Edwards, the well-known historian of the West Indies, came in his youth to Jamaica, where he resided (with an interval from 1782 to 1787) till 1792, when he settled permanently in England as a West India merchant. His *History* (1793)—which ran through five editions, and was translated in part into German, Spanish, French, and Dutch—was written at Bryan Castle, an estate which he founded in Trelawny.

Dr. William Wright, after serving as a naval surgeon under Rodney, lived for sixteen years—between 1764 and 1785—in Jamaica, and wrote on Jamaica medical and botanical subjects.

John Hunter, who is not to be confounded with his more celebrated contemporaneous namesake, was from 1781 to 1783 superintendent of the military hospitals in Jamaica. His "*Observations on the Diseases of the Army in Jamaica*" (1788) forms an important contribution to the island's medical literature.

Dr. Thomas Dancer, who lived in Jamaica from 1773 till his death in 1811-12, was chief of the hospital staff on the expedition to San Juan de Nicaragua. He is best known by his "*Medical Assistant*" (1801).

Olof Swartz, the celebrated Swedish botanist, was in Jamaica in 1784-86, when he discovered many new species of plants.

Robert Charles Dallas, the author of the "History of the Maroons" (1803), was a member of an old Jamaica family. A most prolific writer, he is chiefly remembered in England by his literary association with Byron, with whom he was connected by marriage.

William James, the author of the "Naval History," practised as a proctor in the Vice-Admiralty Court from 1801 to 1803.

Michael Scott's popular works, "Tom Cringle's Log" (1833) and "The Cruise of the Midge" (1834), originally published in *Blackwood*, were written in Jamaica, where Scott was engaged in agricultural and mercantile pursuits. Tom Cringle's cotton-trees, at the Camp near Kingston and on the Spanish Town road, are still standing. For a true picture of Jamaica scenery and of Jamaica life in the early years of the century, no writings can compare with these two works.

But of all the men of letters who have been connected with Jamaica from time to time, perhaps the most noted is "Monk" Lewis, famous in his day as novelist, dramatist, poet and song-writer. He owned properties in Jamaica, and, though he spent only a few months in the island, which he visited in 1815 and 1817, he displayed great sympathy for the negro population under his control, and did much for their welfare—a marked contrast to that other literary Jamaica proprietor, "Vathek" Beekford, who did nothing. Lewis's "Journal of a West India Proprietor" was not published till 1834.

Sir Henry Thomas de la Beeche, the eminent geologist, visited his estate of Halse Hall in 1824, and contributed to the social history and geological literature of the island.

James Hakewill, an architect by education and profession, who was one of the competitors for the new Houses of Parliament, is chiefly known for his "Pic-



turesque Tours" of Italy and Jamaica (1825). Of the illustrated books on the island, the latter is certainly the most artistic.

The Rev. George Wilson Bridges, the author of the "Annals of Jamaica" (1828), was an island rector whose sympathies were rather with slave-holders than slaves, and often led him into conflict with the dissenters.

Dr. Richard Robert Madden, the writer and philanthropist, and friend of Lady Blessington, came out in 1833 as one of the six special stipendiary magistrates appointed to administer the statute abolishing slavery in the plantations. His zeal on behalf of the negroes embroiled him with the planters; he resigned after a year's labours, and thus Jamaica lost one who might have been of great service to her for many years. During his term of office four of the special magistrates died, and four, including himself, resigned—so arduous were their duties.

In 1837 appeared an important contribution to the botanical literature of the island in James Macfadyen's "Flora of Jamaica." Three years later, Joseph B. Kidd, a member of the Scottish Academy, published his "Illustrations of Jamaica," a larger and much more pretentious volume than Hakewill's: its subscription price was £20.

Philip Henry Gosse, the well-known zoologist, visited Jamaica in 1844, where he remained for eighteen months, and collected and sent home specimens of many rare animals. In 1847 he published his "Birds of Jamaica," and, two years later, a folio volume of plates in illustration. In 1851 he published his "Naturalist's Sojourn in Jamaica," in which he was much assisted by Richard Hill, one of Jamaica's most talented sons. In his scientific work, Hill corresponded with Darwin, and through his philanthropic labours he became acquainted with Wilberforce, Buxton, and Clarkson.

Though upwards of a quarter of a century old, the "Reports" (1869) of James G. Sawkins, forming Part II. of the "West India Survey," still remain the standard work on the geology of the island; his collection of minerals is in the museum of the Institute of Jamaica. In 1871-72 Miss North stayed five months in Jamaica, and made drawings of many plants and flowers, forty-six of which are now in the gallery containing her collection at Kew; while for many years David Lindo (who died in 1889) carried on at Falmouth researches in chemistry, the results of which, published in chemical journals, have made his name famous.

Amongst naval heroes who have been connected with the island, may be mentioned Penn, who captured it, Sir Chaloner Ogle, Sir Charles Knowles, Benbow, Sir Peter Parker, Sir Hyde Parker (d. 1807), Rodney, Nelson, Collingwood, Sir Samuel Hood, and Duckworth.

So far as societies devoted to the interests of literature, science and the arts are concerned, Jamaica, considering its size, has had a very fair proportion; the unfortunate feature of the case being, however, that so many of them have died after only a few years' existence, leaving the work of commencing *de novo* to the next generation. The first record to be found of any agricultural society in Jamaica occurs in 1807. The society in question, which belonged to the county of Cornwall, was called The Agricultural Society, so it was presumably the only one of the kind in the island. In 1825 was founded, at Kingston, a Jamaica Horticultural Society, which, two years later, became the "Jamaica Society for the cultivation of Agriculture and other Sciences." By 1843 there were local agricultural societies in twelve of the parishes, due in great measure to the interest which Lord Elgin, the Governor (afterwards better known as Viceroy of India),

took in agricultural affairs. In the same year was founded a general Agricultural Society, which in 1845 became the Royal Agricultural Society of Jamaica, with the Queen as patron; and for many years this society and the old Jamaica Society for the cultivation of Agriculture were working on similar lines. In 1845, also, the local agricultural societies had reached sixteen in number. In 1854 a Jamaica Society of Arts was established. Two years later it became the "Royal Society of Arts of Jamaica," and in 1864 it was amalgamated with the Royal Agricultural Society of Jamaica, and became the Royal Society of Arts and Agriculture; but this last society existed for less than a decade, and its collections passed into the possession of the Institute of Jamaica, which, founded by Sir Anthony Musgrave in 1879, for the encouragement of literature, science, and art, comprises a public library, a museum of natural history, and a small art gallery.

There have been many literary societies formed at one time or another in Kingston and other towns. One of Jamaica's candid friends, writing in 1808, said, "Literature is little cultivated in Jamaica, nor is reading a very general favourite amusement," and he goes on to complain that people chiefly read ephemeral novels. Though reading can hardly yet be called "a very general favourite amusement" in the island, it is taking a hold of the people of Kingston, and there are evidences that it is spreading throughout the country districts; in this movement the press of the island is playing no small part. Though a very large proportion of the books imported by the booksellers are modern fiction, the works circulated in the island are as a whole healthy in tone; and the excellent "Colonial Libraries" of London publishers are taking the place of American piracies. The "penny dreadful" is, it is to be feared, not unknown among certain classes, but

there is evidence that this is losing ground before the influence of books of a more wholesome character.

In 1794 a Kingston Medical Society was formed, but by 1832 it was defunct: to be succeeded in 1877 by a branch of the British Medical Association, the first colonial offshoot of the parent association.

The lesson that one learns from the history of the many societies which have existed in Jamaica during the present century, is that voluntary societies founded at moments of temporary enthusiasm were dependent in great measure on the activity and pecuniary and moral support of a few prominent individuals; and that so soon as the support and motive power were lost, the societies declined.

The Jamaica Agricultural Society, which was inaugurated in 1895, under the presidency of the Governor, Sir Henry Blake, mainly with a view of aiding the small settlers to improve their position, has, it is to be hoped, a foundation in happier times, and the awakening of the people to the need of invoking the aid of science in the pursuit of agriculture augurs long life and prosperity to the society, which already has twenty-three branch societies in the country districts.

With the advent of the new society, the older (now Royal) Society of Agriculture and Commerce (founded in 1885) has stirred itself up to new activity; devoting itself, however, more to the commercial than the agricultural side of its work.

The Fine Arts have fared badly in Jamaica. The English are not an art-loving people by nature, and those who came to the island appear to have been more than ordinarily utilitarian. Little heed has been paid to architecture as a Fine Art. From time to time a few works of prominent English sculptors, notably Bacon, have been commissioned for the island, but they have received but scant appreciation; while



it may safely be said that there is not a painting of the first rank in the colony, and but few of the second or third. Electric tramways, telephones, and telegraphs are a necessity of advancing civilisation; and zinc roofing undoubtedly protects buildings from fire. But Kingston—in spite of nature and recent great sanitary improvements—is rapidly becoming one of the most unpicturesque towns in the British Empire. Here, as elsewhere, picturesqueness has to make way for utility. The beauty of the surrounding country becomes, however, only the more apparent.

#### IV. THE EFFECT OF THE BRITISH INFLUENCE UPON THE COUNTRY AND UPON THE NATIVES

As the Spaniards killed off the aborigines, we must look upon the African negroes imported into the island and their descendants as the natives of Jamaica.

It has been estimated that upwards of 1,000,000 Africans were imported against their wills into Jamaica during the entire period of British rule; and this, of course, does not include the very large number which were yearly born into slavery.

Till the close of the last century, it was the almost universal custom to regard slaves as little better than cattle, and the old newspapers contain, side by side, advertisements for lost cattle and runaway slaves.

Amongst the many conflicting accounts of life on the old estates, it is difficult to arrive at the truth. But it seems evident that on some few estates, at all events, the treatment of slaves was brutal in the extreme, for which brutality the absentee proprietors were in a great measure answerable, for many of them, leaving their properties in the care of attorneys, cared not how the slaves were ill-used so long as the estates

produced good incomes. On the other hand, it is certain that on many estates the slaves were treated with care, not merely because of their money value, but because their owners were humane—although those same owners would have scoffed at the idea that there was anything wrong in their holding a brother man in bondage.

When emancipation came—although the ministers of religion had done much towards preparing their minds, and some over-zealous well-wishers had, it may be thought by some, gone almost too far in the direction of preaching equality—the negroes were not thoroughly prepared for it. No man would now, of course, defend slavery or would wish to delay emancipation for one moment; but no one, on the other hand, would advocate turning a number of half-educated and but half-grown-up school-children into the world to fight the battle of life for themselves; and the negroes of Jamaica, at the time of emancipation, were in many respects little better equipped than children for life's battle.

Since that date, however, their needs and wants have been carefully considered by the Government and the Legislature; and ministers of religion of all denominations and others, aided by philanthropic and religious societies at home, have done all in their power for the amelioration of the race.

One of the chief hindrances to the social development of the people is the lack of interest which not a few of the landed proprietors display in the welfare of the labouring population in their neighbourhood—a baneful heritage from the days of absentee-proprietorship. Owing perhaps in part to this cause, there is in the island a sad lack of that village life which has proved an important factor in the building up of the English people. Attempts—with but small permanent result, however—to form village communities were made by

missionaries in many districts shortly after Emancipation. But any real village communities that seem likely to become permanent and give promise of future success, have arisen in recent times partly through economic and partly through social causes. Lack of interest on the part of their local leaders and an omission in some cases to set a high ideal of life before them, have led in many instances to lack of interest by the people in their own affairs, and an absence of a right popular feeling in connection with their own moral and social well-being; and for those who have tried their best to elevate the negroes around them it has—it must be admitted—too often been an almost hopeless effort against disinclination to steady labour and a tendency towards predial larceny—the last-named being the greatest hindrance against which agriculture in Jamaica has to fight. Before much permanent social progress is made, the respect due to the female sex will have to be impressed on the mind of the negroes—men and women alike; and in this matter, in the absence of all true home-life, the future wives of the people can only be influenced in the churches and the schools.

England, during two centuries of occupation in the West Indies, incurred, by reason of her participation in the slave-trade and slavery generally, a deep obligation to the negroes of Africa. This debt she is now endeavouring to repay by doing her utmost to advance the interests of the race. It must of necessity be a somewhat lengthy process; but it would seem that a negro peasant population is growing up in Jamaica, which will, it is to be hoped, in a generation or two prove a mainstay and support to the industries of the island. In this respect Jamaica differs from Cuba, where, owing it may be in part to the colder climate, the negro does not flourish.

Those who are disappointed in the Jamaica peasant

of to-day are, one would think, unreasonable. They expect too much of him. When we consider that but two generations ago the negro was treated like an ox, driven too often to his work at the whip's point, and purposely kept from all advance either in morals or education, it is a matter for surprise that he is to-day so far advanced as he is. In many cases, a field negro will not work for his employer more than four days a week. He may till his own plot of ground on one of the other days or not as the spirit moves him: but four days' work a week will keep him easily. He has little or no care for the future. There has been no biting frost of last winter to make him think of saving up against hard times. If by chance he is out of employment (and it is probably his own doing if he is) his needs are few. He has possibly squatted on some one's land, and rent he has none to pay. Clothes he need scarcely buy; fuel he wants only for cooking purposes, and food is ready to his hand for the picking. If under these conditions the negro is apt to be indolent and improvident, who shall wonder?

Times of disaster, due in most instances to drought, do occur now and again, and generally find the negro without any savings to draw upon; but poverty as it too frequently occurs in crowded centres in England, made all the more bitter by severe cold, is absolutely unknown in Jamaica. One bad drought is not sufficient to convince the Jamaican that it is wise to build suitable tanks for the storage of water.

With a slight temporary check during 1897 and 1898, owing to general depression in trade, the small accounts in the Government savings-banks are increasing year by year, showing that habits of thrift are being inculcated into the minds of a race by nature thriftless. It may be noted that though the coolies are less than 1-60th of the population, they formed



during the year 1897-98 about 1-32nd of the depositors in the bank.

In the old days, one of the chief festivities of the negroes was that of "John Canoe," a pageant, brought from Africa, which took place at Christmastide. It is said that as much as £15 used to be given for a single costume. Like the morris-dancers and mummers of Europe, these festivities have almost fallen into disuse; and the main object of pleasure-seekers, described by "Monk" Lewis as consisting in "singing, dancing, and laughing, in seeing and being seen, in showing their own fine clothes or in admiring those of others," now finds expression in picnics and such-like gatherings. Their disuse may be attributed in part to the negro's fear of ridicule; and partly, too, to the same cause may be ascribed the less frequent use in later years of their proverbs and sayings, many of which are very expressive and full of humour.

That superstition is still prevalent amongst the negroes is unfortunately evidenced by the cases of obeah, or witchcraft, that come before the Courts from time to time, and by the springing up of prophets of the Bedward type—a man who professes to cure all human ills by blessing the waters of a stream near Kingston. All one can say is that superstition is not unknown elsewhere; and that the sixty years that have passed since Emancipation have been all too short to enable the ministers of religion and educators to grapple with beliefs which are the outcome of centuries of the blackest superstition. That distrust of those in authority had not been quite eradicated from the negro mind was proved in 1891, when negroes coming from the distant parts, on seeing turnstiles at the Exhibition entrance, declined to enter, thinking the Exhibition had been erected to entrap them into slavery. And in 1895 some of the peasants hesitated to bring their horses and other stock for sale at the local fairs, which had

been instituted in order to provide them with a more ready sale, fearing that it was intended to find out how much stock they possessed, with a view to increased taxation. But cases such as these are fortunately becoming less frequent; and the small local shows instituted under the auspices of the Agricultural Society are helpful in proving to the peasantry that those in authority are working for their good, without ulterior objects.

When all is said, the conviction remains that for several generations—if not for a longer period (and Time alone can show how long)—the stimulating influence of English direction and encouragement will have to be added to the powerful assimilating tendency arising from incorporation in the British Empire, if the people of Jamaica are to progress at such a rate of speed as will enable them to ere long take, and maintain, their place beside the peoples of countries at present more advanced.

Looking down the long years of Jamaica's history, and viewing its position on the map, one is surprised to find the thought as well as the life of the people so thoroughly English as it is. Spain has left behind her little trace of her occupation. The neighbouring French islands have had absolutely no effect whatever. The vicinity of Central and South America have had no influence. Although Americans from the United States owned for a time the railway and ran it on the American system, are now in possession of a chief share of the fruit trade, and are large employers of labour, and although American commercial travellers traverse the island pushing their wares, and many Jamaicans go to and return from England by way of America, and the almighty dollar passes current—yet American influences have not affected the life or thought of the people to any appreciable extent. The half-hearted talk about annexation to the United States in 1898 met with

but lukewarm support even from those few who favoured it, and there is reason to believe that of them the most intelligent were actuated by the Machiavelian idea of using it as a lever to extort assistance from the Mother Country, who, it must be admitted, at times draws large drafts on the loyalty of her colonies. There is no doubt that Professor Robert T. Hill<sup>1</sup> misjudges entirely when he says: "Notwithstanding the intense loyalty to the crown of every Jamaican, from the humblest negro to the highest official, there is a general feeling on the part of the people in favour of annexation to our country."

The very large number of inhabitants of African origin have all been moulded by English and Scotch thought (for a large number of the settlers from Great Britain have been Scotchmen), in a manner in which neither Chinese nor Indians could have been moulded; and this plasticity is very evident in the extraordinary manner in which those of African origin in Jamaica have discarded and forgotten the language of their fathers.

Jamaica's language, religion, laws, and politics are English, and her people are English in feeling, and this feeling is being strengthened day by day by the schools, the churches, and the press. News from London, the great centre of the empire, is eagerly read and appreciated, the Union Jack is honoured, the Queen is beloved, and nowhere in the British Empire would a closer union between England and her daughter-lands be more cordially welcomed than in the leading colony of the British West Indies. But a preparatory step towards such a union would be the closer federation of the West India Islands themselves. If one were not aware of the difficulty and expense of inter-colonial communication, and of the fact that West Indians,

<sup>1</sup> "Cuba and Porto Rico with the other Islands of the West Indies." London, 1898.

when they take a holiday, go to England, or, in some cases, to the United States, it would seem strange that a collection of British islands—separated the one from the others by distances not great in comparison with their distances from other British possessions, and with many conditions of life in common—should not have, in the long course of their British colonial history, been drawn more closely together than they are, especially as at certain times—such as in the cases of their resistance to the abolition of slavery, and their opposition to beet-sugar bounties—they have been impelled to act on a common platform if not actually in concert.

A Jamaican sees more of his brethren of the other islands in six months spent in London and on ship-board between Barbados and Southampton, than in six years in his own island.

#### V. THE PRESENT POSITION OF THE NATIVES AND THE OUTLOOK IN THE FUTURE; AND THE PRESENT POSITION OF THE COLONISTS AND THE SUITABILITY OF THE COUNTRY FOR COLONISATION.

In a country of the hilly nature of Jamaica, there are, of course, parts—Jamaica's hinterland—which would scarcely repay tillage: apart from such tracts, there are, however, large areas of land waiting for cultivation.

Of Crown lands there are nearly 81,000 acres unoccupied; part is, owing to its inaccessibility, of no great value, but much is suitable for occupation. About 7300 acres of Crown land are leased to some 600 tenants, and 46,794 acres are unpatented.

A scheme for the sale of Crown lands in small lots of from five to fifty acres, at an average price of £1 per acre, on deferred payments, which was started in 1897, has proved acceptable to small settlers, and should act as a deterrent to that nomadic squatting life hitherto



adopted by the negroes, which is inimical to true agriculture. The six hundred purchasers of 6700 acres of land under this scheme have begun to plant their lands and build houses in a manner that promises success for this effort to assist in establishing a peasantry in the island. Any purchaser who has one-fifth of his acreage established and bearing a permanent crop within or at the end of ten years will be refunded one-fifth of the money he paid for the land.

Under the railway law, a square mile of land was assigned to the company which made the line for every mile of line taken over; this land, which amounts to 73,393 acres, is not at present offered to purchasers.

In connection with the suitability of a country in the tropics for colonisation, one of the first questions to be considered is, of course, whether a European is able to do manual labour there. In a paper entitled "A Tropical Colony," in the *New Review* for September 1895, by Mr. Frederick Boyle, the writer—who claims that few men have had so varied an experience of hot countries as he has had—expresses his conviction that man the animal, like all other living things, attains his highest development in the tropics; and he repeats the saying that Irish navvies imported made the Panama Railway, when peons, West Indian negroes, and Chinamen had all been tried, and all collapsed successively. Certain it is that the evil reputation acquired by the West India Islands in the past, from a hygienic point of view, and which they still retain in the minds of some people, is due in great measure to culpable negligence of the laws of health on the part of immigrants. In the old days in Jamaica the soldiers were stationed in insanitary barracks in most unhealthy localities, and naturally succumbed. Young men who came out from England to sugar estates, were wont to indulge in drink and other excesses, and to expose

themselves to the heat of the sun and to the night air, with fatal results.

Except near lagoons and morasses, the island is healthy. The heat is at times oppressive, but rather on account of its continuance than of the excessive height of the thermometer. During the summer of 1896 the heat was not nearly so severe as in New York. In the higher lands it is bearable even on the hottest day, and even in the lowlands it is not so hot as in corresponding latitudes in the eastern hemisphere. The mean daily temperature for 1893 was  $76.5^{\circ}$ . An analysis of ten years' record gives a mean range of  $71.1^{\circ}$ . Since June 1880 the highest temperature recorded was  $96.7^{\circ}$ , and the lowest  $56.7^{\circ}$ . Jamaica possesses a happy immunity from sunstroke; and many complaints common in Europe are but rarely met with here. It is true that of late years the influenza has visited the island, but the cases have not been so severe, nor has the mortality been nearly so great as in England. To some weak constitutions, especially those whose respiratory organs are delicate, the climate is far more suitable than that of England, with its violent changes from heat to cold. The climate of the Santa Cruz Mountains, on the south side, is, by reason of its dryness and equability, an ideal one for those in the early stages of consumption, and for rheumatic subjects. To sum up in brief the qualifications of Jamaica's climate, one sentence may be quoted from an article on the subject by Dr. Stedman of New York, an independent witness, who says, "When proper sanitary precautions are taken, and due care is paid to personal hygiene, whether among military men or among civilians, the climate of Jamaica is as healthy as that of any part of the world. Admitting the possibility of contracting, through carelessness or otherwise, some tropical fever, this possibility is more than counterbalanced by the immunity from other sicknesses and ailments which have their origin, not in

evil conditions and surroundings which man can remedy, but in the cold of winter, in frost and ice, and snow and blizzard, against which there is for the delicate constitution no escape but flight."

Jamaica possesses a very great variety of climate, due in no small measure to the differences of altitude. A ride of three or four hours will take one from the plains of Liguanea, where one would be glad of a punkah, to a house in the Blue Mountains some 4000 feet high, where a fire is not unacceptable; and one passes on the way, of course, a succession of intermediate temperatures. One can walk miles in the hills with enjoyment, while in the plains such a form of exercise becomes in the hotter months rather a duty than a pleasure.

Nearly one half of the area of the whole island is above 1000 feet in height and temperate in climate. The rainfall varies very much throughout the island. For the whole island, the annual average is 66.3 inches; at Kingston it is 32.6; and at Cinchona, in the Blue Mountains, it is 105.57. No month is, as a rule, quite without rain, but the heavy rains come in May and October, the latter being the heavier and lasting the longer. About a century ago, Jamaica suffered much from hurricanes, which destroyed buildings and crops. But they fortunately seldom visit the island nowadays. They pass to the north and east, and also to the south and west, with comparative frequency, but they seldom hit the island itself.

There is a Central Board of Health in Kingston, and the local boards of the parishes act as local boards of health. The island is divided into thirty-six medical districts, to each of which is appointed by the Government a medical officer, who is held responsible for the due discharge of all medical duties within his district. There are few places in the island more than eight or ten miles from the residence of a medical officer,

and, as there are good driving and riding roads, the distance is really not great.

There are twenty-three hospitals in the island. Two of the mineral springs have bath-houses attached, where provision is made for visitors—at Bath, in St. Thomas-in-the-East, a sulphur spring; and at Milk River, a saline. They possess therapeutic properties of considerable value. The former was a century or more ago as fashionable in Jamaica as its namesake was in England.

To return to the question of the amount of manual labour that a European can do in the tropics, one finds that it is one difficult to answer, for men differ greatly in constitution—both physically and mentally. When necessary precautions are taken, especially by the new-comer, against exposure to the sun and the night air, and due regard is paid to diet, there is no reason why an Englishman should not keep his health in many parts of Jamaica, doing a fair amount of almost manual labour. For example, many medical men in the island work quite as hard as they would in England, riding long distances along hill paths at any hour of the day or night; and engineers, engaged in road or bridge making, or, as has recently been the case in Kingston, in sanitation, have of necessity to bear much exposure to the sun.

Mr. Boyle says truly, “A man will keep his health and spirits when he is tilling his own land under conditions which would prostrate him if he were toiling for another.” And certainly many British-born planters and pen-keepers in Jamaica, in their work of supervision, do a very large amount of labour without suffering ill effects.

Jamaica undoubtedly offers numerous favourable openings for young men from Great Britain and other European countries, with small capitals (say of from £2000 to £3000) and some experience in farming, who



wish to adopt an agricultural career. But, as many are deterred by the knowledge that to start farming or planting without some preliminary experience of the country and of the conditions under which agricultural pursuits are carried on, is to court disaster, the Governors of the Institute of Jamaica took steps in 1891 to bring about a means of communication between those planters and pen-keepers who were willing to receive young men as articled pupils, and intending emigrants from Great Britain and elsewhere. A register of such planters and pen-keepers as are willing to take pupils is kept; but it must be distinctly understood that the Governors can accept no responsibility at all in the matter, and can only circulate copies of the *précis* of the replies received from planters, from which inquirers must draw their own deductions.

Pupils must also communicate direct with the planters and pen-keepers with respect to terms, &c., and it is suggested that some friend should if possible be asked to visit the property on behalf of the pupils.<sup>1</sup>

With reference to the emigrant without means, one who has had twenty years' experience of tropical colonies, both east and west, including Jamaica, and has had every means of judging of the conditions under which agricultural life is there carried on, says he has never known a single instance where white men have been able to establish homes and live comfortably on the result of purely manual labour. But others hold that it is possible for white men to

<sup>1</sup> A schedule, which has been compiled from the replies alluded to above, hitherto received from the planters and pen-keepers, shows (1) the nature of the properties, (2) the districts in which they are situated, (3) the premium required, (4) some indication of the kind of home and surroundings the pupils might expect, and (5) the work they would have to perform and the instruction they would receive. Copies of this schedule can be obtained on application to the Institute at Kingston, Jamaica, or to the Emigrants' Information Office, at Westminster, with which the Institute of Jamaica is in correspondence.

do regular manual labour in Jamaica, and keep their health.

The chief feature in Jamaica's favour would be that the agricultural settler's needs would be few, and that he would find himself living under the British flag. He would have knowledge and English perseverance and persistent work to put against the negro's spasmodic labour, disregard for the future, and present indifference to scientific methods; but, on the whole, the disadvantages outweigh the advantages. If he went by himself, he would find himself isolated, without any of his class near him—a condition of affairs too often conducive to drink and inattention to business—for hitherto English settlers have, in the main, been either men with means, who have purchased estates, or young men who have been content to hold subordinate positions on estates until they have saved up enough capital to embark in planting for themselves. He would also find himself handicapped, from a constitutional point of view, when compared with the negro peasant, by whom he would be despised, for the negro has a contempt for white men who have to work like himself. With a capital of £2000 to £3000, as has been said, he would have a fair opening; even with one of some £400 or £500, he might have a chance of success.

Although the country is almost purely agricultural, there are of course settlers who arrive from time to time for work in the towns. So far as can be ascertained, all those who abstain from the curse of drink (and it has proved a sore temptation to many) have done very well. But they have come out as the result of previous arrangement with store-keepers and others in the island, or with their representatives in England. There is a dearth of skilled craftsmen, both for the construction and the repairing of objects; but the settler would probably have to make his own

business connection, and would not readily find employment.

Clothing is slightly dearer than in England, but is readily obtainable in Kingston and elsewhere. Meat, fish, poultry, fruit, and vegetables are both plentiful and cheap. But those living in or near Kingston, and occupying an official position, find living more expensive than in England, by reason of the fact that some things, such as horses and carriages, which are a luxury in England, are almost a necessity in Jamaica: though the recently constructed electric car lines, which traverse the streets of Kingston in all directions, and run for some miles into the country, have done much towards rendering residents in the suburbs independent of carriages. In the country, where pasture is plentiful and life is simpler, the cost of living is, if anything, less than that of England.

The manufactures of the island are but few. In addition to the sugar and coffee estates and tobacco factories, they include dye-works, electric light, gas, and water-works, iron-foundries, and railway works, printing offices, potteries, and factories for the production of cattle-food, ice, matches, soap, and mineral-waters.

Jamaica entered the postal union in 1877, and it now possesses all the chief postal and telegraph facilities, both foreign and inland, enjoyed in European countries. A letter can be sent to any part of the island for one penny, but there is a house-to-house delivery in Kingston only, letters and parcels in other places having to be fetched from the nearest post-office. The colony has also joined in the British Imperial penny-post scheme.

There are 111 constabulary stations in the island, and a force of 778 officers and regular constables, supplemented by 863 district constables. The inspectors are chiefly Englishmen.

There are about 713 churches and chapels for re-

ligious worship, the chief of which belong to the Church of England, the Baptists, the Wesleyans, the Presbyterians, the Roman Catholics, and the Moravians; and these and other religious denominations have, with the aid of government grants, maintained for years a large number of schools, and have done in the past, as they are doing in the present, a very great deal for the advancement, both social and intellectual, of the native population of the island.

The principal denominations are represented on the Board of Education, and although Jamaica is not quite free from denominational disputes, the various ministers of religion work together for the common weal.

After the question of finding favourable markets for the produce of her fields, Jamaica is chiefly interested in the subject of the education of her sons and daughters. Recent inquiry and legislation—started partly in response to criticism on the system of the elementary education of the island, which had grown up round the efforts of denominational bodies, and partly in the cause of retrenchment, which was being considered in connection with all phases of expenditure—resulted in some reduction in the vote for education, and in a slight alteration in the school-age (6 to 14 instead of 5 to 14 as formerly); in the decision to abolish certain inefficient schools; to make no grants to denominational schools that might be founded in the future; and to amalgamate, in the form of government schools, closely situated denominational schools, as it might be found practicable. But the question of compulsory attendance, in the face of many difficulties, was postponed for future consideration.

The elementary schools, attendance at which is voluntary, now (1899) number 781. In the year 1898–99 there were 893 schools with 96,252 scholars on the books, and 56,853 (or nearly 1 in 12 of the population) in average attendance; at a cost of 18s. 2d.



a head. These schools are subsidised by the State, and now receive grants in lieu of fees, which were abolished in 1893. The salaries of elementary schoolmasters vary from £25 to £150 per annum.

The teachers, both male and female, for these elementary schools are trained at five training colleges in the island; and the work done there is of much importance, for great power for good rests in the hands of these elementary schoolmasters in rural parts.

In addition to these, there are a number of higher-grade schools; and technical education is also provided for. Both boys and girls can obtain in Jamaica a good English education, and can crown it by taking in the island the degree of B.A. of London.

Once a year a scholarship for £200 per annum, tenable for three years at any one of the Universities of Great Britain and Ireland, is awarded. It is given to the boy (who must be Jamaica born, or a son of parents domiciled in the island) who passes best in the Cambridge Senior Local Examination, provided he comes up to a certain standard.

About forty other scholarships, varying from £60 to £5, are given every year.

In 1898, at the Cambridge Local Examination, held for the seventeenth time in the island, 328 candidates sat at four centres. Of these 231 passed, 66 of them with honours. The percentage of honours gained in Jamaica compares most favourably with the general results of the examinations held at all the centres. To take but one example: Throughout the British Empire 59 senior boys gained first-class honours. Sixteen of these were from the Colonies. Ten were from Jamaica alone; one being the highest senior boy in the whole examinations. In 1896 a lady student passed the Higher Cambridge Local Examination—there held for the first time out of England.

There are two daily papers published in Kingston, either of which would do credit to any town of like size in England; in addition to a number of periodicals issued at less frequent intervals.

There are troops in Jamaica to the number of about 1750, consisting of a detachment of an infantry regiment and a company of Royal Artillery and Royal Engineers, and head-quarters and four companies of either the first, second, or third battalion of the West India Regiment, the rest of the battalions being in other West India Islands, St. Helena, or on the west coast of Africa. The rank and file of the West India Regiment, natives of the West India Islands, are in great measure recruited in Jamaica and Barbados. These men have frequently proved their efficiency and bravery in action; and one wears the Victoria Cross.

There is also a Jamaica militia, about 800 strong. At Port Royal there is a depot ship and dockyard, and the North American and West Indian squadron visits the port once a year, and men-of-war of other nations, especially of the United States, are not unfrequently seen in Kingston's magnificent harbour.

As to sports and pastimes, there are race-meetings held in Kingston and several of the parishes. There are cricket clubs in the principal towns, and, on the occasion of the visit of an English team to the West Indies in 1895, one or two Jamaica-born cricketers gave a very good account of themselves. Lawn-tennis is much played throughout the island; polo is played at the camp near Kingston, and in one or two of the parishes; football is played in the cooler months in Kingston and Spanish Town; golf is played, and cyclists are in evidence on the roads. Yachting and rowing can be obtained in Kingston and other harbours, and there is shooting of pigeons of various sorts, and fishing in the rivers. To those interested in natural history, Jamaica

offers numerous attractions—in geology, in insect and bird life, in the world of plants, and in the waters round its coast, which has tempted students of the Johns Hopkins University to form temporary biological laboratories, three times in Kingston harbour, and once at Port Antonio.

## VI. THE CONDITION OF AGRICULTURE, TRADE, AND COMMERCE

The chief occupations of agriculturists in Jamaica may be divided into three kinds—pen-keeping (*i.e.* the breeding of horses, mules, cattle, and sheep), planting, and a combination of the two. The principal objects of the planter are sugar, coffee, and banana cultivation, and the growing of cocoa, coco-nuts, ginger, limes, log-wood, nutmegs, oranges, pimento, pine-apples, and tobacco. The last-named was till recently confined, in great measure, to settlers from Cuba, who, however, with the cessation of the war returned to their own country. Bee-keeping is also a profitable and increasing industry. Poultry-keeping and dairying are a source of income to not a few. Grape culture is at present in the experimental stage. The cultivation of indigo, which was formerly a staple product, has long since been abandoned.

Sugar estates have been gradually decreasing in number for years, but proprietors—now that the subject has been well ventilated in the mother country, and the injustice of their position is being realised, owing in a measure to the recent action of India in connection with the same industry—are hoping for relief from the unfair bounty system of continental nations.

Jamaica Blue Mountain coffee realises the highest price in the London market, and Jamaica ginger has always been appreciated in the marts of the world.

Ramie, or China-grass, grows freely and well, and

only awaits the advent of a suitable machine for treating it, to become a thriving industry, as is also the case with various other fibre-bearing plants.

It was pointed out a few years ago that there is an abundance of land suitable for growing vegetables near Spanish Town and Kingston on the south, and near Port Antonio on the north-east coast, whence frequent shipments could be made to New York, Boston, Baltimore, and Philadelphia: and this branch of agriculture is beginning to receive attention.

A certain Henry Whistler, who went out with Penn and Venables, wrote of the island, "The Spaniard doth call it the garden of Indies, but this I will say, the gardeners have been very bad, for here is a very little more than that which groweth naturally." Although that remark is not true to-day of the whole island, yet it might be fairly applied to certain cases.

It was Sir Anthony Musgrave, in 1877-1882, who, in addition to the reorganisation and development of many official institutions, the establishment of a steam coastal service, and the extension of the railway, insisted on the importance of devoting attention to the so-called minor products of the islands, and Jamaica is to-day reaping the benefit of his policy. If all her eggs had remained in the sugar-basket, she would now be in the same unfortunate position as are some of her sister islands in the Caribbean Sea, which are entirely dependent on the sugar-cane.

In his paper already referred to, Mr. Frederiek Boyle said, "The West Indies are ruined to a proverb," and possibly many in England and America are of his way of thinking. But a knowledge of the natural resources of the island and the steady advance in matters educational and agricultural which has recently taken place, certainly leads one to suppose that, in spite of the depression of 1896-98, Jamaica is to-day further removed from ruin than it has been since its so-called



palmy days a century ago, and is certainly not dying of dry rot as Professor Hill suggests.

In 1845 the revenue of the island was £276,045, and the expenditure £273,199. In 1895-96 the revenue—which is derived from import duties and excise, from taxes on land, horse kind, carriages, by education and poor rates, the export duties having been abolished in 1891-92—amounted to £807,893, and the total expenditure to £805,281; but in 1898-99 the revenue had fallen to £600,271, and the expenditure was reduced to £630,701.

The Public Debt is now £2,104,110.

*Imports.*—The following is a summary of the totals of the different groups of articles entered for home consumption in 1898-99, compared with 1897-98 and 1896-97:—

	1898-99.	1897-98.	1896-97.
Live animals, food, drink, } and narcotics . . . }	£674,094	£724,359	£759,419
Raw material. . . . .	63,286	65,427	49,778
Manufactured articles . . .	1,033,388	868,845	1,027,008
Coin and Bullion . . . . .	17,664	15,749	28,407
	1,788,432	1,674,380	1,864,612

Of the imports of 1898-99, 44.7 per cent. was drawn from the United Kingdom, as against 55.1 in 1893-94; 45.1 from the United States, as against 33.3; 7.1 from Canada, as against 8.8; 3.1 from other countries, as against 2.9. This shows an apparently steady increase in favour of the United States over previous years, due to a large increase in the imports of food stuffs. In connection with this matter, it may be mentioned that the contention of the United States Consul in Jamaica, in a recent Report,<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> "Tariff of Jamaica: effect upon Trade," July 19, 1899.

to the effect that the present tariff acts with intentional prejudice to the products of the United States has no foundation whatever in fact; the tariff having been framed—without the slightest reference to the sources of origin of the articles taxed—with the object of raising revenue, subject to a desire to protect a few of the local industries. Many articles are subject to an import duty of 16½ per cent. *ad valorem*.

The Collector-General pointed out in 1895 that an increase in the number of cattle (£19,105 worth in 1894–95), horses and mules (£6658), and sheep imported, as well as forage, suggested that something was amiss in the management of the pens, or stock farms: and, following the same line of thought, one wonders why Jamaica should yearly pay large sums for imported pork, butter, and corn, when pigs are easily raised, butter easily made, and corn readily grown. Upwards of £62,971 a year, too, is paid for lumber, and, in the present condition of the labour market, it is cheaper for a planter to import American pine and pay the freight in the island to his estate, than to pay for the labour of cutting down and sawing up a better tree on his own property. An answer to all this may probably in part be found in the difficulty often experienced in obtaining either skilled or trustworthy labour, and in the case of provision crops, in the depressing effects of predial larceny. Lately, there have been developments in the manufacture of fodder from bananas, &c., and hay from Guinea grass which, it is to be hoped, may prove the forerunners of similar industries.

*Exports.*—The value of the exports for 1898–99 was £1,662,542, as against £1,431,368 in 1897–98, showing clearly that the tide of depression had turned. The following is a comparative statement of the proportion of exports during the last four years:—

	1898-99	1897-98	1896-97	1895-96
Fruit . .	41.4	42.8	34.3	29.9
Sugar . .	9.8	8.3	10.1	11.0
Rum . .	6.1	6.3	8.4	9.3
Coffee . .	10.5	11.4	14.4	16.0
Dye-woods	8.8	8.9	11.6	20.4
Pimento .	8.3	3.6	5.2	5.1
Minor products }	15.1	18.7	16.1	8.3
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

In 1893-94 the products of the fruit plantations (principally bananas) for the first time deposed the products of the sugar estates (sugar and rum) from the premier position which they had ever held in the exports of the island; and the increase of the one and decrease of the other trade has continued, with a slight variation in 1898-99, ever since. Jamaica should always be able to command a market for her high-class rums. Of sugar, only 4 per cent. of the whole export goes to England, and 90 per cent. goes to America; while of rum, the States receive but 1 per cent., and the United Kingdom 90 per cent.

Comparing the present with the past, we find that the largest amount of sugar exported in any one year was 150,352 hogsheads in 1805, while the largest export of rum was in 1806 with 58,780 puncheons (4,232,160 gallons), as against 14,200 puncheons exported in 1898-99. But it must be borne in mind that at the beginning of the century all the sugar and rum consumed in England came from the West Indies. There was then no competition from Mauritius, Queensland, Natal, Borneo, Peru, or Egypt, and last, but not least, no unfair competition from the very inferior bounty-fed beet sugar of Europe.

During 1898-99 the exports were distributed in the following manner: To the United Kingdom, 20.0

per cent., as against 27.1 in 1894-95; United States, 59, as against 58.1; Canada, 1, as against 1.5; other countries, 20, as against 13.3. The loss of trade with the mother country is appreciable.

The large proportion of exports taken by the United States is due in great measure to the banana and other fruit trade, which has sprung up of late years, and which has also indirectly proved an agent in bringing visitors to the island.

The bananas exported in 1898-99 were valued at £468,580. Of these, at present, nearly the whole go to the United States. In connection with this trade, the question arose a few years since as to the disposal of the fruit which, from its smallness and other causes, cannot be shipped. Bananas can be converted into yeast and alcohol, and, above all, meal, which is highly nutritious in character. Proposals were made for the establishment on a large scale of a banana flour factory in the island without result; the price offered by the proposers for the bananas being apparently too low to encourage planters to entertain the project. Since then, an extensive factory for the manufacture of dried bananas, and of cattle-food from bananas and other crops, has been successfully started in the west end of the island.

Experiments in the shipping of fruit to England have not hitherto proved altogether satisfactory, owing, in a measure, to the fact that ships built for passenger and ordinary freight traffic are not suitable for the conveyance of perishable fruit.

With the line of fast fruit-bearing steamers between Jamaica and England, which is to commence running in the spring of 1900, and with a recognition on the part of the British public of the highly nutritious qualities of the banana, there should be no reason why as large a quantity of that fruit should not be sent to England as now goes to the United States,



and pine-apples, oranges and other Jamaica produce find a ready sale in the London markets. One cannot, however, but feel that if Jamaica, or better still the West Indies generally, had in London an office analogous to the Agencies-general of the autonomous colonies, sympathy would be engendered between the colony and the mother country, and the conditions of life in Jamaica and her claims on England would be better understood than they are now that she is dependent for recognition on the spasmodic efforts of self-appointed committees and well-wishers, however hearty these may be in their advocacy and support.

In spite of the somewhat uncertain outlook for the proprietors of sugar estates there seems to be a true revival of prosperity setting in for Jamaica. Future prosperity for these estates possibly depends on more advanced cultivation, and on relief from the effects of the bounties on beet sugar. Central factories are by many considered the panacea for the sugar-planter's ills, and they have been fully discussed in the island; but in the case of Jamaica there will not impossibly be found difficulties which do not exist to such a large extent in other sugar-producing countries, in addition to a sad lack of co-operation that is somewhat typical of the island.

Coffee and dye-woods, two of the principal exports, seem destined to be a permanent source of income, in spite of the present decrease in consumption of the former and the slight decrease in the export of the latter; while at present, at all events, there are but few signs of abatement in the popularity of the banana in America.

Oranges, which ever since the Spaniards introduced them have grown freely in the island, have been receiving more attention of late years, with a view to their better cultivation, selection, and packing for export; and the severe frosts experienced in Florida in

recent years have given an impetus to orange growing in Jamaica. The value of oranges exported in 1898-99 was £123,715, showing a continuation of the slight decline since the great impetus which the industry received in 1895-96. But with improved methods of cultivation and packing there is every hope of an increased export in the near future.

The extension of the railway to Montego Bay and to Port Antonio, the latter the chief port of shipment of fruit to America, with the recent considerable addition to the excellent roads of the country and the bridging of rivers which were formerly impassable in the rainy seasons, has undoubtedly given a great impetus to trade and commerce in the island; and the improvement in shops—or stores, as they are here called—which has taken place during the last few years, both in Kingston and the smaller towns, is an encouraging sign for the progress of the community.

In Jamaica's commercial destiny in the immediate future, the following influences will play their parts—a growing, if tardy, interest in the island on the part of the Mother Country, and an ever-widening feeling for closer union amongst the several parts of the British Empire; sympathy for closer alliance between Jamaica and the Dominion of Canada; the newly-acquired power of the local legislature to make reciprocal trading treaties with the United States, which country owns many of the island's best markets; and the lately developed friendliness between the United States and their English cousins, tempered by the recent hoisting of the Stars and Stripes over Cuba and Puerto Rico, which now naturally advance higher claims for fiscal consideration at the hands of the United States than Jamaica can produce.

With the results foreshadowed by these influences, there should be a bright future for Jamaica. But her best promise of success lies in her own fruitfulness, in

the possibilities of steady, honest toil on the part of her sons and daughters, and in the placing of intelligence in the hands of labour.

VII. THE STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS; THE LAWS OF THE COLONY RESPECTING MARRIAGE, LAND, INDUSTRIES, &c.; AND THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THESE LAWS AND THOSE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

When the colonisation of the newly-acquired island of Jamaica was organised in 1661, the first thing the Governor was directed to do was to "take unto him a Council of twelve persons, to advise and assist him in the execution of his trust." Authorities differ as to whether this Council was chosen by the Governor or elected by the people, but it formed, at all events, the prototype of the present Privy Council of the island, under whose advice the Governor now governs.

Lord Windsor, the second Governor in 1662, was directed to call, with the advice of his Council, assemblies to make laws, such laws to be in use for two years only unless approved by the Crown. Not many years passed, however, before an attempt was made to force upon the island the form of legislation prescribed for Ireland by Poyning's law. The virtual difference between the two systems being that in the one the island made its own laws in accordance with its own needs and sent them home for approval, and in the other the laws were made in England and sent out for the approval of the island. The proposed change the Assembly resisted with might and main; their late Speaker, the Chief-Justice of the island, being sent home a State prisoner: and at last success crowned their efforts. In 1728 an agreement was entered into by the Ministry of George II., by which, in return for an annual subsidy granted to the king for the support of the civil government, full power of legislation was

conceded to the governor, with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council and House of Assembly of the island, subject only to the proviso that any Acts passed should not be repugnant to the laws of England, and to disallowance within a limited period by the Crown. After this, for nearly a century and a half—until, in fact, the members of the Assembly in 1865, after the disturbance of St. Thomas-in-the-East, surrendered the privileges for which their forefathers had struggled—the people of the island of Jamaica enjoyed, with certain modifications introduced from time to time, the right of making their own laws, subject only to the provisos above mentioned.

In 1865 a system of government by a Governor, assisted by a Legislative Council consisting of *ex-officio* and nominated members, commonly called Crown Government, was introduced, under which the Governor was armed with almost despotic power in the island, subject only to Home control. Under this form of government many eminently useful reforms, both administrative and legal, were introduced. But in 1884 matters came to a deadlock, owing to the general resignation of the unofficial members, and the unwillingness of any private person to accept the position of a nominated member. Accordingly, a change was made by which members elected by the people were substituted for members nominated by the Crown, and the Council then became composed of three *ex-officio*, four nominated officials, and nine elected members, with the Governor as president. So that only for about nineteen years in its history have the people of Jamaica been without a share in the legislation of the island; and in 1895 the number of elected members was increased from nine to fourteen, *i.e.* one for each parish of the island, the number of nominated and official members being at the same time proportionately increased. This system of government is un-



doubtedly hybrid in character, but, if all the circumstances of the case are taken into account, it possibly suits the conditions of the colony as well as any other that could be devised.

In 1899 the right was conceded to Jamaica—in common with other West Indian colonies—to make a reciprocal trading treaty with the United States, a privilege of considerable importance, and likely to have much influence on the island's future welfare.

The laws of Jamaica respecting marriage, land, industry, &c., differ in no appreciable degree from those of England. As they now stand, they are the common law of England as modified by British legislation prior to the conquest, and by such Acts of Parliament passed between that time and 1815 as were during that interval recognised and acted on by the Courts, and by such Acts of the local Legislature, whether passed before or since 1815, as have not been disallowed by the Crown. On the whole, it may be said that English law prevails (at least in its main features) in the island. Though English Acts of Parliament passed since 1728 have not, of themselves, the force of law in the island, yet a large proportion of those suitable to the condition and circumstances of the place have been adopted, with or without modification, by the local Legislature. These, together with numerous laws of a local or administrative character passed by the Governor and Council, constitute the "Acts and Laws of Jamaica."

There is a system of poor relief, the funds being derived from a tax on houses—a tax which meets with considerable opposition at the hands of some politicians and philanthropists, who consider that it acts against the improvement of the houses of the people, and consequently against their social advancement. The administration of the funds is vested in the parochial Boards, subject to a body called the Board of Supervision, instituted on the Scotch model.

## VIII. VISITORS: CONCLUSION.

There are a number of very good roads circling the island by the seashore, and traversing it in all directions; the main roads are under the control of the Public Works Department, and the others are kept in order by the parochial authorities.

In a country like Jamaica, nothing tends more towards the advancement of the people than the opening up of the country by means of roads, which carry the light of civilisation into the moral darkness of the bush; and the erection of substantial bridges over mountain torrents renders of use throughout the year roads which were formerly passable only in fair weather. During the recent governorship of Sir Henry Blake, Jamaica experienced a wonderful advance in this respect (an advance possibly beyond her spending powers at the time), the results of which are already evident, and, in spite of a temporary reduction in expenditure on maintenance, will undoubtedly continue.

Since 1889 the length of the main roads has been increased from  $752\frac{1}{2}$  miles to 1912; and upwards of 100 new bridges have been constructed—many of considerable size; one over the Rio Minho, in Vere, is of a single span of 240 feet. During the financial year 1894-95, upwards of £100,000 was spent on roads and bridges. The heavy washings to which roads are subjected at the time of the season's rains naturally add materially to the cost of repairs.

These roads not only aid the peasantry to bring their produce to market: they also render the beautiful scenery of the inland part of the island more readily accessible to the tourist; and make travelling possible to many who would be deterred by the somewhat rough riding which it was necessary to undertake in order to see the island in the old days, and which is

still obligatory on those who would explore the more hilly parts; although two driving roads now penetrate into the heights of the Blue Mountains.

The best months in which to visit Jamaica are December, January, February and March, as they are the coolest, and also free from heavy rain. The passage from Southampton to Kingston, by Royal Mail steamer, at present takes sixteen days. There is a fortnightly mail; but postal communication with the mother country is also carried on by way of New York, which is reached in six days from Jamaica; and letters sent *via* New York not unfrequently reach their destination more quickly than those transmitted by the regular mail. Steamers bring tourists from time to time both from England and the United States in the cooler months of the year.

The Royal Mail Company has since 1892 arranged tours in the West Indies, occupying from five weeks to four months; and for those who can afford the time, it is a very pleasing change from the frost and cold of England, and especially the fogs of London, to the balmy air and beautiful scenery of the islands of the Caribbean Sea, of which Jamaica is certainly not the least beautiful. The steamers of the Atlas line run weekly between Kingston and New York. The steamers of the Boston Fruit Company, which run with great frequency, are also available for passengers; and many Jamaicans now go and return from England by way of the United States or Canada in preference to the direct route of the Royal Mail.

In connection with the holding of an international exhibition in 1891, and in anticipation of a large influx of visitors, four substantial hotels were erected under Government guarantee; and others, not so imposing in style but their equals in equipment, have been built by private enterprise. In many of the country parts travellers have to be content with the old-time

boarding-houses, where wholesome, if not elaborate, cooking may be obtained. A week or two may be pleasantly spent in one or other of the excellent lodging-houses in Mandeville: and in viewing the grazing pens of Westmoreland, Hanover, St. Ann's, and St. Catherine, with their Herefords and shorthorns, and here and there zebus and Mysore cattle from India; the horse-breeding pens of St. Elizabeth; the pimento groves of St. Ann; the coffee estates of the Blue Mountains, and of Manchester, where also grow the best oranges; the sugar estates scattered throughout the island, one of which, near Kingston, turns out in a week about fifty tons of sugar, enough to sweeten  $2\frac{1}{2}$  millions of cups of tea; the beauties of the Roaring River; the strange appearance of the Cockpit Country; the historic associations of Spanish Town and Port Royal; the pleasure of a trip round the coast in a coastal steamer, or a drive along the excellent road skirting the coast; and the grand scenery, which is to be found in almost every part of the island.

In conclusion, Jamaica—at once the largest of the British West India Islands, and an island possessing a greater variety of climate and products than any other, and affording as healthy a residence as the best of them—has interest to the lover of history, especially of the British Empire, and that should be to every Briton; to the naturalist; to those in search of health and of relief from the trying climate of an English winter, or of scenery of great variety and beauty; and to the agricultural settler with a certain amount of capital, who is prepared to take the country as he finds it, and does not expect to change his home without changing his mode of life.

Jamaica, alike in the past and in the present, affords a picture in which lights and shadows are strangely commingled. To some the lights form the prominent features, to others the shadows. It is a



picture which needs years of study for its comprehension, and those who think that a few weeks' sojourn suffice for its interpretation are sadly mistaken.

On the whole, it would seem that the lights are increasing, while the shadows recede before the advance of civilising influences.

## BARBADOS

By J. L. OHLSON.

THE West Indian Colonies, comprising some of the oldest and most interesting possessions of the British Crown, have always been in the mind of the English people, although in that mind there has been no accurate or definite knowledge of their history and circumstances. It is a standing joke about a Secretary of State calling British Guiana an island ; and it is probable that for a long time, now happily ended, the people who knew least about the West Indies were to be found within the walls of the Colonial Department. In 1660 a Council of Foreign Plantations was created by Letters-Patent. Locke, the philosopher, was once a member of the Board of Trade and Plantations, and for many years subsequently the Colonies were treated as part of the War Office organisation ; but since 1854 the affairs of the Colonies have been administered by a principal Secretary of State for the Colonies. The old house in Downing Street, with its narrow entrance, its dirty rooms, its candles that always wanted snuffing, its greasy attendants, its general pokiness and ancient smells, will be remembered by many colonists. How any great schemes of Colonial policy could have emanated from such a place is a matter of wonder. The present Department is lodged better. Entering the square from Downing Street, the first door to the left shows a wide staircase, and at the extreme left of a broad corridor (but not too broad, especially to those who know the wide corridors and staircases of the State

Department at Washington) is the Secretary of State's room, on the farther left-hand corner of which is the great man's table, where he sits with a row of maps before him, trying to look as cheerful as possible amid his melancholy surroundings. Lord Carnarvon, with his winning manner and soft hesitating voice, was the first to occupy this big room. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was there for a year or two, always willing to accept any office, as the official maid-of-all-work. Lord Kimberley left no distinct impression, being coupled with Lord Granville as among the weakest of all Colonial Secretaries. Lord Derby was a stronger man, with his somewhat more bulky frame, his fine but leathery-looking face, and his funereal voice hardly distinguishable into words at times. Lord Stanley of Preston was a dapper, rather military-looking man, whose only qualification for the post was an absolute ignorance of all Colonial affairs. Edward Stanhope was at the Colonial Office too short a time even to learn the names of the Colonies. Then came the long career of Sir Henry Holland, afterwards Lord Knutsford, a courteous gentleman, with an intellectual face tending to sharp lines, trying to look pleasant upon everything and everybody. Lord Ripon, stout in person and unctuous in voice, succeeded;—but who is this coming rapidly up the stairs—a thin gentleman, with a pallid face, a round glass in his eye, and an orchid in his button-hole? Surely it is Joseph Chamberlain; the only minister with truly Imperial ideas, with intellect and sympathies ready and able to grasp the urgent needs of the Colonies, and to put forward those interests and considerations upon which depend the smooth working of all Imperial concerns. One of the latest manifestations of Mr. Chamberlain's policy is connected with the West Indian Colonies, who look to him for the redress of their grievances, the rehabilitation of their industries, the application of the

true principles of the government of the Colonies by the mother country.

The West Indian Colony that we are particularly concerned with at the moment is Barbados, a representative one in many respects, and having a special history and peculiar circumstances of its own. Its limited area, geographical position, superabundant population, absence of manufacturing employment, beyond that of sugar-making (and even that with few of the modern appliances), its windmills instead of steam-power, the origin of its population, and the non-admixture of other races from foreign countries—are all interesting points; while its general history is important, not only from a local point of view, but because it is connected with many aspects of Imperial policy, and because it witnessed, in times of European war, many great victories of the British navy.

Barbados was first settled by Englishmen, and has never been out of the possession of the British crown. It has had its trials and its dangers, its social problems and its political crises. It has felt the influence of the fortunes of European wars, and the thrill of famous naval victories, won by English admirals in the Caribbean Seas. It has undergone all the vicissitudes of the original Proprietary system, and the conflicts of Patent rights between such noblemen as Marlborough and Carlisle in the earlier years of the seventeenth century. Its agricultural promise attracted the practical attention of the merchant adventurers of London at a time when commercial enterprise was first directed, in an important degree, to lands beyond the seas. Its early colonists were men of good family—some anxious to escape from political and religious troubles at home, others desirous of mending their fortunes in new and unaccustomed fields of work; and still more, colonists were later sent out by Cromwell in the stress of the Revolution, practically as prisoners of the Civil



War. It has produced many capable men, imbued with notions of constitutional liberty and of the rights of free-born Englishmen, and has preserved the use of free debate in its elected Assembly, even to the present time. It stood out loyally for the Stuarts, but was compelled, by force of arms, to submit to the Protector's Government. It has felt the heavy hand of English taxation, and known all the variations of English commercial legislation; from the navigation laws of Cromwell, restricting trade to British ships and ports, to the protective commercial system which developed later in various ways. It was vitally interested in the various approaches to free-trade in the first half of the present century, one important step of which was the equalisation of the English duties on British Colonial free-labour sugar and foreign slave-grown sugar. It necessarily felt, in common with other tropical colonies, the force of that great social revolution, the abolition of slavery, and the disturbance of labour caused thereby; the planters receiving, of course, their share of the money voted in compensation by the English Parliament. It has successfully struggled to maintain its cultivation amid the competition of the enormous sugar industries which have grown up in all parts of the world, notably in North and South America, Australia and South Africa, India and the Eastern Islands, and on the European continent. And for some years past it has greatly suffered from the Bounty system and other protective legislation of Germany, Austria, and France—a system by which beet sugar has flourished, but which has reduced prices of all sugar so much that the cane industry of Barbados, without any bounties to support it, has seen its legitimate profits vanish, and the population dependent upon it for the means of living reduced to a condition of severe distress.

Barbados is a small island, about the same size as

the Isle of Wight. It is twenty-one miles in length, and in its utmost breadth about  $14\frac{1}{2}$  miles. Its superficial area is 106,470 acres, equal to 166 square miles. Its general flatness is relieved by rock and hill; but there is none of that grandeur of elevation which in other islands is the result of immense volcanic energy, although the presence of coral suggests upheaval from the sea. Its soil is laid indeed upon a coralline formation, which is particularly observable on and near the coast; the shallow water and coral reefs preventing large steamers from coming alongside. Carlisle Bay is a large open roadstead, however, in which great ships can find safe anchorage; and the central position of the island, lying as it does in the full track of ocean steamers, gives to it great geographical and strategic importance, and renders it convenient as a coaling port, the residence of troops, and a centre for the transshipment of mails for all the colonies in that region, except Jamaica, which is the final British point of the ocean steamers of the Royal Mail Steam Packet main service. In climate it is, for the tropics, temperate and equable (subject, though happily at long intervals, to severe hurricanes), the sea breezes contributing much to its general healthiness. Bridgetown, so named from a rude bridge constructed long ago by the native Indians, is a thriving and busy place, with its commercial quarters, its Government buildings, its churches, its substantial residences, its extensive parade ground, and the other notable features of an important capital town.

The story of the first settlement of an island, the general history of which, Sir Robert Schomburgk tells us, is by no means barren of events which have materially affected the British Empire, must always be interesting. It was probably known to the Spaniards, for slave-catching purposes, early in the sixteenth century, and the Portuguese might have been aware of its

existence, lying as it did in their course to and from Brazil. But its real history began with the arrival, in 1605, of the *Olive Blossom*, a ship fitted out by Sir Olive Leigh, really for another port, but touching at Barbados by accident. Originally inhabited by Indians, the crew of the *Olive Blossom* found no traces of them, or of any other race owning the soil, so they erected a cross, cut upon the bark of a tree, "James, K. of E. and this Island," and, without attempting to make any settlement, sailed away. The next step was the adventure of Sir William Courteen, a London merchant engaged in trade with the new world. Hearing a good account of Barbados from some Dutch ships trading with Brazil, and finding it confirmed by a report from one of his own ships calling there in 1624, through stress of weather, Courteen sent out two large ships, laden with all the materials for a settlement. One of these, the *William and John*, arrived on the 17th February 1625. There were only forty English, with a few negroes, to undertake this rare experiment of peaceful colonisation; and with true British pluck and vigour they commenced their enterprise. They fortified themselves close by the spot which had been visited twenty years before by the sailors of the *Olive Blossom*, appointed Captain William Deane their Governor, and laid the foundation of a town, which they called "Jamestown," in honour of the king.

But the fortunes of the infant colony were very much harassed by the clashing of interests at home between the proprietary earls. It is not necessary here to discuss in detail the system which, from the importance attached to it, seemed in those early days to hold out prospects of great advantage. The Earl of Marlborough, at one time Lord High Treasurer, claimed to be the original grantee, and it was under his protection that the Courteen expedition was sent. This grant was disputed by the Earl of Carlisle, who

also claimed to possess a grant, under the great seal, of all the Caribbean Islands; and as the result of a long litigation, the Carlisle grant was confirmed by Charles I. in 1627, the Earl of Carlisle agreeing to pay the Earl of Marlborough, and his heirs for ever, three hundred pounds annually for the surrender of the claim. The grant gave power to make laws agreeable to the laws, statutes, customs, and rights of "our kingdom of England," with the consent and approbation of the free inhabitants of the said province; it provided that the said inhabitants, and their children, should be subjects of the king, and should freely, quietly, and peaceably possess all the liberties, franchises, and privileges of their kingdom, and to use and enjoy them as liege people of England. Thus, while the prospects of constitutional government in England were to be soon made the subject of fierce debate and civil war, a foundation was laid in this distant island of a Parliamentary freedom which has been preserved to this day, subject only to the final prerogative of the Crown in connection with the sanction of laws and the appointment of governors. It is important to bear in mind these facts, in any endeavour to estimate the relations of the white propertied classes with the black labouring classes. Upon the whole these relations, though perhaps sometimes open to criticism, have been judicious and satisfactory according to English notions of legislation, the incidence of taxation and government generally. Many black men now possess the franchise, showing their capacity to take part in their own public affairs; and while bearing in mind the deplorable disturbances which took place some years ago under the governorship of Sir J. Pope Hennessy, the relations between all classes—ruling and ruled, employer and wage-earner—may be said to be now quite harmonious, and the experiment of free institutions among a mixed population, made nearly three centuries



ago, and subject to all the vicissitudes of slavery and freedom, justified in its results; and these results would be still more obvious but for causes over which the Barbados Assembly has no control, such as the great pressure of a superabundant population, and the distress arising from inadequate returns for the capital and labour employed in the staple industry.

Reverting to the early history of the island, but without touching upon any further troubles incident to the proprietary claims and their bearing upon such enterprises as those of Courteen, it might be recorded that under the governorship of Philip Bell, about 1645, the real history of the island began. Fair laws were passed, a judicial system properly inaugurated, representative government put on a proper and firm footing, and a real start was made when sugar became the staple of the colony, the value of property largely increased, and slave labour was obtained from Africa. The troubles of the Revolution affected Barbados. Lord Willoughby of Parham went out as Governor, and did his best for the Stuarts as well as for his own proprietary interest derived from the Earl of Carlisle. The story of the expedition under Sir George Ayscue to reduce the island to submission to the Parliament, is too well known to need recapitulation. Suffice it that after holding out for some time, and making better terms than might have been expected, the island submitted. The Restoration found Lord Willoughby again in Barbados, rewarding the loyal adherents with titles and other marks of royal favour, and the proprietary interest was finally extinguished in favour of the Crown. But a duty of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. upon the produce of the island was imposed and exacted for many years, nominally for expenses of Government, but really to defray some of the Court expenses of English Sovereigns. Of the dangers of privateering, owing to the European wars: of the assistance ren-

dered by Barbados to the British attacks upon the French possessions in the Caribbean Sea; of the dependence of the island upon food supplies from America; of the misery caused by the stoppage of those supplies, owing to the American War of Independence, and subsequent controversies connected therewith; of the great hurricane, which caused Parliament in 1782 to make a relief grant of £80,000; of Rodney's naval victory, which saved Barbados and other islands from being taken by the enemy; of Napoleon's attempts early in the present century to subdue the Archipelago; of Nelson's flying visit in 1805 in search of a French fleet—for Bridgetown has its Trafalgar Square and its Nelson Monument—of these and other historical events it would be interesting to speak. But it need only be said that the island preserved its British nationality through all the chances and changes of European conquests and defeats; and it will be seen, from even these faint indications, that it possesses a history of which it may with good reason be proud.

When the earliest settlers arrived they found a large number of wild hogs; but some years after the settlement such articles as indigo, cotton-wool, ginger, aloes, and some descriptions of wood were exported. The origin of the sugar cultivation is, perhaps, still rather obscure, but, for the purposes of cultivation, it was necessary to import and employ labourers from Africa. The condition of these slaves was, especially towards the end of the last century, a subject for discussion at home, and numerous Parliamentary debates might be referred to; but the treatment of the slaves was as good, assuming the essential humanitarian objections to such a servile condition, as in any of the British Colonies. Large fortunes were made by English merchants out of slave-trading enterprises, and these, notwithstanding all the horrors of the middle

passage, were apparently justified by a public opinion in support of this ancient traffic: a public opinion, however, which after centuries of existence — even down to the time of the poet Cowper's friend, Newton — entirely veered round in favour of emancipation; a necessary consequence, indeed, of the advance of Christian civilisation, the growth of truer principles of humanity, and the unrestrained abhorrence of the best English instincts against a traffic in flesh and blood.

The present population of the island may be put at 190,000, principally blacks, occasionally slightly decreased by casual efforts in emigrating labourers to contiguous colonies. Comparing these figures with the size of the island, it may be truly assumed that labour is cheap, a very different state of things from that existing in other sugar colonies, where a very expensive system of coolie immigration from India has been found necessary to maintain the supply of labour for the sugar estates.

The island still possesses, as above indicated, representative institutions, but not, according to the Colonial Office authorities, responsible government (that is, officials do not resign if their proposals are not carried), as in the larger self-governing colonies of Canada and Australia. Still it does preserve its representative institutions. It is not a Crown colony, in which all the members of the Legislature are appointed by the Queen, through the Secretary of State. The Legislative Council consists of nine members appointed by the Queen, and the House of Assembly consists of twenty-four members elected annually on a moderate suffrage. That the system of indirect taxation exists, is shown by the fact that the Customs revenue is £104,000, out of a total revenue of £185,000, or taking all classes of taxation together, including excise on spirits made and consumed in the

island, about £1 per head of population. This taxation may seem great in itself, considering the average earnings of the people, but is moderate when compared with other colonies and countries. Barbados depends largely upon the United States for its food supplies, and the reduction of the taxation on imports would undoubtedly benefit the general population in the matter of food, as, beyond yams and other ground provisions, there is little food produced in the island itself.

The total value of imports into Barbados, from all sources, was in 1896, £1,048,887, but this includes £9405 in bullion and specie. Practically a little over a million pounds was the value of the imports in 1896. The value of imports from the United Kingdom in 1896 was £450,000. The total exports were valued at £758,228, the United Kingdom receiving only £38,520. This shows an enormous decrease of the trade between Barbados and the United Kingdom. Is Barbados sugar, so good and strong and sweet, thus kept out of the English market? Barbados, which ought to have an average crop of 50,000 tons, only sends a small quantity to the United Kingdom, and the bulk of its produce goes to the United States. Out of a total export value of £750,000, only £38,000 comes to the United Kingdom, and £417,000 goes to the United States; the remainder going to British North America, viz. £120,000, and the inter-colonial trade. It is evident, therefore, that Barbados—and it represents practically the whole of the West Indies in this respect—depends upon the United States market for the sale of its productions, as it depends upon the United States for its food provisions, its lighting power (kerosene oil), and, indeed, almost everything except, perhaps, hardware, cutlery, cottons, linens, &c., which are, however, not increasing in export value, from the United Kingdom. Machinery, of which comparatively



little is used in Barbados, principally comes from the United Kingdom, but Germany and the United States are running this business close. Coal, no doubt, is an article of importance, both American and English coal finding a market there, either direct or from Newfoundland. Barbados, Jamaica, and St. Lucia are coaling stations for her Majesty's ships.

In all countries of the world there must be manifestations of a diversity of interest between employers and employed—between capital and labour—although the interests of both are really identical. The former aims at the largest possible profit, the latter at the highest wage. Hence the formation of trades unions and the organisation of strikes. If this is true in connection with men belonging to the same race, it might be thought that the difference would be intensified when the respective parties belonged to such radically different races as the white and black. The white race is very small in numbers in the West Indies, as compared with the African. Mr. Froude thought that the government by the white race was drawing to an end. "England," said Mr. Froude, "will soon be no more than a name in Barbados and the Antilles." He seems to suggest that any increase of political power by the blacks must necessarily lead to the overthrow of the whites, and that the Imperial Government might have a number of black republics on its hands. He describes as a possible position of affairs, a Governor-General presiding over a black Council, delivering speeches made for him by a black Prime Minister. He instances the capacity for improvement, and adaptability for political and official life, as shown in the conduct of Chief-Justice Reeves, who for so long a time has been the best representative of the black race in high position as the dispenser of justice in Barbados. All who know Sir W. Reeves can understand how eminently he has justified the confidence placed in him in the discharge

of his important and delicate functions. Various other men, both black and coloured, might be mentioned as having shown themselves fitted for political life; but there is no sign, at all events at the present moment, that the elevation of the black race in knowledge, responsibility, and character would have a tendency to disturb the relations between the white and the black races. There have been occasional outbreaks caused by local circumstances, but the West Indian Colonies are absolutely loyal to the British Crown, in spite of the many errors and misunderstandings of the Imperial treatment and government of the Colonies pointed out by Mr. Froude. It has taken a hundred years for the Colonial Department to understand the needs of the Colonies; and it is not so many years ago that a writer on Colonial affairs pictured a dull and steady-going clerk, posing as "Mr. Mother Country," riding on the knife-board of an omnibus from his suburban home to Downing Street, to pursue his daily occupation of reading despatches he did not understand, answering questions the true bearing of which he did not know, and generally dealing with the lives, liberties, and possessions of people whose actual existence he did not realise, whose wants he could not grasp, and whose tendencies and surroundings were utterly incomprehensible to him. A great change for the better has taken place since then, but there is still much to be desired. No doubt, as Mr. Froude says, that "as British subjects we are bound to govern them, and to govern them well." This of course raises many points which need not be discussed here, such as the class of men appointed as governors and high officials. As to the black people in Barbados, there is no appreciable extent of land for them to settle upon. They are dependent upon the labour they render and the wages they receive, and it is not surprising that complaints of poverty are not infrequent. Nor does it seem

possible that, except in the case of the abandonment of heavily mortgaged and unproductive estates, any land could be available for the settlement of small peasant proprietors. This severance from the soil might, in course of time, be a source of danger or at least unrest, but at present there is no development towards such an issue. Labour in the country districts seems fairly contented, and in Bridgetown the crowds of black men and women give great animation to the scene. The competition for portage from and to the mail and other ships is a proof of the activity, the physique, and the good-humour of the negro crowd; though there are sights in that city, as indeed in all tropical towns, which can hardly be witnessed with satisfaction by those who are interested in the prosperity of the black race, and its deliverance from destitution and vice.

The increase of the population is one of the most serious of questions. It is stated in official reports that pestilence or emigration was apparently the alternative as an escape from starvation, in the event of one or two unfavourable seasons. The area of the island must remain unchanged, its productive powers and its means of employment do not admit of any great extension, and there must be limits to its power of supporting its increasing population. Emigration to other colonies has been proposed many times, but the island authorities have never really encouraged the scheme, because it might lead to the sending away of the best labourers. There is also a curious reluctance on the part of the labourers to emigrate, and of course no colonies, such as British Guiana, would pay the cost of a large number of inefficient and poverty-stricken people being dumped down in their midst. The average number in a family is stated at 5.3. The schools are attended by large numbers of illegitimate children, but the attendance is irregular, owing to their being

sent to work in the fields, to the indifference of the parents to education, and other causes. As an Island Commission on Education reported some time ago, the chief cause of the obstacle in the way of education, especially in the primary schools, is "bastardy." A family of children by different fathers and the same mother, is perhaps not the best material for educational purposes. It may, however, be recorded that, so far as the ministers of religion are concerned (the bulk of the population being at least nominally attached to the Church of England), they have been doing their best for the improvement of education among the younger classes of the population.

There is a Government system of elementary education, under which 185 schools, with an average attendance of 15,000 scholars, are established. The Codrington College, purporting to give higher education, is still in existence. Upon the whole there are a number of agencies with the intention of promoting the social and educational improvement of the people. But it requires a great deal of practical missionary effort to improve the social condition of the people, and to lessen an evil which perhaps is the result of loose notions of intercourse and marriage, viz. the large mortality among the infant population. And yet, the tendencies of the people are good. Children born out of wedlock are brought to be baptized, and this has been, and probably is now, one of the great means of ascertaining the number of illegitimate births in the various parishes; supplementary, of course, to the decennial census. Where there is no reticence with regard to concubinage, there can be no shame. The difficulty is to fix the sense of responsibility in the rather unstable but really cultivable mind of the negro. To give him civil rights, to impress him with the value of legal protection for his house and garden, to treat him in every way as a free man and a responsible



citizen—these are the means by which he must be practically taught.

Further to elucidate this subject, it may be said that apart from the racial difference, emphasised by Mr. Froude, between the small white and the preponderating black population, there is one relic of the old days of slavery still very perceptible, not only in Barbados but elsewhere in the tropics. The great social difficulty has been to impress upon the mind of the blacks the necessity as well as the sanctity of the marriage tie. The number of illegitimate births is very great, and the number of marriages so small as to be quite out of proportion with the size of the population. Efforts have been made by religious and other agencies to force upon the people a sense of moral responsibility on this important matter; and although the negro mind is easily led, and its tendency to religious exercises, especially of the more emotional kind, decidedly apparent, the circumstances in which the people are placed, a certain want of moral fibre, climatic conditions, and general mode of living, must be held accountable for what seems on the face of it an undue amount of immorality, though possibly that word might be interpreted somewhat differently in England and the West Indies. Considering the long period of slavery, when there were neither civil rights nor proper marriage laws, and opportunities of education and improvement were very few and far between, it must be a work of much time to substitute what might be considered an essential condition of freedom, the appreciation of the necessity and the advantage of marriage. Miscellaneous intercourse between the sexes seemed a natural concomitant of slavery, and one of the very worst and yet unavoidable features of that system. But even freedom itself might not necessarily bring about a better state of things in this respect without much teaching and continued effort. Some of the

official statements made and published in Parliamentary blue-books twenty years ago are very outspoken and instructive; the "hopeless poverty" then to be found in the colony may have been ameliorated since by a better system of poor relief, and other agencies, but it is still in a measure true, as the House of Assembly recorded in an official message, "that poverty and want have overtaken and outstripped the means provided by law for their relief." And again, with regard to morality, the above papers contain statements, on the high authority of the President of the Legislative Council, which cannot be read without a feeling of hopelessness as to the elevation of the black race, especially if the remarks animadverting upon the moral conduct of "persons placed in responsibility upon estates" in respect of their subordinates "and unhallowed alliances" be in any way generally true. It may be hoped there has been improvement since Dr. Bruce Austin, the rector of the important parish of St. Philip's, in 1876 painted his disheartening picture of the state of morals under his observation.

Among the better class of people, cane-farming might be a good thing for those who will not work as labourers on the estates. Considering that the British Parliament has voted £125,000 to establish central factories in Barbados, thereby securing a proper utilisation of the cane-farmers' produce and labour, why is not this arrangement carried out? Such an offer, if refused by planters, would bring upon them a great responsibility. Again, surrounded by the sea, why are not the fisheries more developed? The standing dish at table in Bridgetown is flying-fish, and as the season lasts for seven months, the fish selling at six pounds a penny is a cheap diet. But there is no possibility of an outside trade in fish, nor indeed largely in any native production of sea or shore, except sugar; and with regard to sugar, no theoretical

considerations can have any weight. The labour must be utilised, the sugar must be produced, and it must be sold in the world's market for the price it will fetch. If it cannot bring a living price for all concerned, from labourer to planter-capitalist, it must be abandoned. The situation therefore becomes a serious one for the general population. A proposition is very often made that any abandoned estates might be carved into allotments on which the people, or as many of them as possible, might be settled. To many minds, especially those having strong sympathies with the African race, such a prospect would be attractive. But mere philanthropy is monoculous; it looks at things with one eye. In the state of things suggested above, there would be no capital in the soil, and no dependable wages. The public revenue would have to be supported by heavy import duties on food, and a grinding land-tax on small holdings. To contrast the former prosperous condition of Hayti with its present aspect would suggest no cheerful prospect. No! Barbados must grow sugar, and the planters must pay wages for skilled and unskilled labour, and on these wages the bulk of the population must live. In good times wages should increase, as in the case of the mining industries of England and Wales. But in bad times both planters and labourers must suffer. A wage of eightpence, tenpence, to a shilling a day might be considered low relatively, but it is not absolutely so, considering the climate and, on the whole, the fairly reasonable cost of living. So far as is known at present there have been no serious complaints as to the rate of wages, and the Barbados labourer is, when at his best, a shrewd and sensible fellow. He knows on which side his bread is buttered. At the same time, it must be remembered that in a closely intermingled system like that of Barbados, where houses are rented on sugar estates, with implied or expressed

conditions of service or labour, there must always be a tendency to the utmost legal exaction on the part of the planter. A matter like this should not depend upon merely social considerations of goodwill, but should be emphasised by such a fixity of tenure of house and garden as would secure the tenants of these little properties from anything like undue eviction without compensation. There is an old law of Barbados (January 1850) which raises this point. It expressly recognises the system of houses, lands, and premises being occupied by persons bearing the relations of servants or labourers to the owners of the estates on which there are such cottages or houses. The idea of tenant and labourer is thus closely intermixed. A good deal depends upon whether any fixed term had been agreed upon as to such occupancy. But this original agreement provides by law for simply a month's notice, so that the occupant, if his services to the estate are not considered satisfactory, may be turned out of his house and holding. Whether this, in the peculiar circumstances of the case, is a power that should properly belong to the landlord, mixed up, as it is, with conditions of personal labour, is an economic problem on which no opinion need now be expressed. No doubt these questions of the tenure of small holdings have received attention, especially that the Hennessy riots about twenty years ago drew special attention to them. The broad principle may be put forward, that the tenure of a house, however comparatively small the rent, ought not to be part of a consideration for service on the plantation grounds or buildings. Of course, having regard to the pressure of population, and the wayward character of the blacks, this kind of tenure may be, in the majority of cases, to their advantage.

If the above is a correct statement of this matter, there can be no doubt that the mixing up of house



tenure and field labour is subject to misunderstandings, and has indeed on some occasions been the source of trouble. The power of exacting labour or service in connection with rent and power of eviction, is one that should be carefully guarded. Everything is now satisfactory in connection with the relations between landlord and tenant, but it would seem desirable that labour service should be on the normal system of direct agreement between employer and labourer, without regard to other debts or social arrangements. The municipal government of Barbados is founded on a system of vestries, with powers of parochial taxation and distraint. The system, no doubt, has been working smoothly, and may possibly bear the strain of severe depression and wages reductions.

The course of trade, or the choice of markets, has changed in recent years. Lord Derby once said, when he was Secretary of State for the Colonies, that the United States, by reason of propinquity and other causes, was the "natural market" for West Indian sugar. This has proved to be true in recent years, for while in 1882, 60 per cent. of the island produce was shipped to the United Kingdom, 17 per cent. to the States, and 22 per cent. to Canada, the export in 1896 was only 5 per cent. to the United Kingdom, 93 per cent. to the United States, and 2 per cent. to Canada. A reciprocity treaty was arranged in 1884, by which sugar was received at favourable rates in the United States in exchange for a reduction of duties on American goods in the island, but this arrangement was never really carried out. In 1891 similar arrangements were made, but these, owing to the changes in American commercial legislation, lasted but a short time. What the effect of the present negotiations (1898) for the same purpose, both in regard to America and Canada, will be it is impossible to say. A market in the United States of sixty millions of people is, on

the face of it, preferable to a market in Canada of only six millions of people; and the United States must remain the real and only market for West Indian produce, while the United Kingdom remains practically closed against the Colonial produce by the continued allowance by Great Britain of the imports of Continental beet sugar under bounty.

With regard to further details as to trade, the total value of the imports is about a million sterling, and the exports (reduced in value by the low prices of sugar) about £800,000. The figures of 1896, therefore, represent a total trade of a million and three-quarters sterling, including an important intercolonial or transit trade with neighbouring colonies. A total trade is shown of under £10 per head of population. Of course this compares to some extent unfavourably with other colonies, like British Guiana, which has a total import and export trade of £3,240,000, with a population of 285,000, nearly half of whom are imported coolies. There is little land in Barbados unsuitable for cultivation. The cane-fields and pasture-lands have the appearance of a well-kept garden. The people are industrious, but the sugar cultivation apparently only engages directly about one-fourth of the population, the remainder being employed in general services appertaining to the sugar industry, such as cooperage, lighterage, portorage, &c., domestic service (females), fruit-sellers, and all the small retailers and hawkers of cheap goods. Whatever the occupation of the people, the population is too large for 74,000 acres planted in sugar. There are absentee proprietors, and a good many resident. Cultivation is careful and systematic. By means of manures, valued at £79,000 a year in good years, the yield of sugar is as great as in any other country. Out of 440 estates, however, only 99 use steam-power for crushing, the remainder using the old-fashioned windmills. All the estates, with

very few exceptions, in the island produce muscovado or raw sugar, the impression being that the machinery for producing crystals would not be remunerative, as compared with the prices realised for the fine, rich brown sugar for which Barbados has so long been celebrated. Altogether about 50,000 tons of sugar are, on the average, exported from Barbados annually, which means, if the figures given in the Royal Commissioners' Report of 1897 are correct, a low yield of under a ton of sugar per acre.

It has been said that, owing to the low price of sugar, estates in Barbados might to some extent be abandoned, especially those in less-favoured districts. This would, of course, be an important matter as regards the labouring population. It is quite true that the crisis might be staved off by the offer of the Imperial Government to advance £120,000 for the establishment of central factories, the said money being either a gift to the sugar industry, or recoverable in course of time, under the security of a lien on the land and buildings. This measure would be a great help to Barbados, for one reason, that it would introduce an amount of capital which would have to be expended in wages for the labouring population. If only on this account, the grant should be accepted, and the necessary enterprise undertaken by the planters in certain districts where factories could be established with a fair prospect of success. The money ought to be sufficient for two or three factory centres, the growers of canes relying upon a definite (however moderate) return for their weight of canes. Individual planters, growing their own canes and extracting really a very poor return from them in low-priced sugar, should face the situation, and join heartily in this movement, founded upon the Government grant. Their sugar at present is exported mainly for refining purposes, and if, with the assistance of the Government, they can refine it them-

selves, it ought to be an undoubted benefit to them. They alone are not interested. The first aim of the Imperial Government must be to secure the advantage of the large industrial population, for if that population is thrown back upon the hands of the Imperial Government, no one could tell what the results may be in view of the wageless and practically starving people. Relief works would be merely a temporary expedient, and settlement on abandoned lands would be the only resource. This would of course mean the ruin of all the institutions of government, the loss of a part of the public revenue, the political mastery of a black proletarianism, under which the island would make a new and disastrous start. The future of the island is in the hands of the present planters, not merely through their House of Assembly, but acting unitedly on their own behalf, and taking the bull by the horns. If they do not accept this view, the "bull" may soon be too much for them.

Now this system of central factories might have an appreciable influence upon the small holders of allotments, who belong to the more respectable classes of the black population. A man, with a house such as might be found among the more respectable of the peasantry, with several acres at his disposal, and with wife and children accustomed to gardening, might grow sugar-canes, and sell them to the factory on a percentage basis of juice or sugar. This system of small cane-farming has been tried with fair success in Trinidad. It has been started to a limited extent in British Guiana. It bears a recognisable relation to the Metayer system in Tobago, although that system has not been very satisfactory in recent years. The Metayer system in Java is perhaps a better case in point. Now this question of cane-farming is undoubtedly one in which a large number of the peasant proprietors of Barbados are interested. But still the question re-



mains, whether the sixpence, eightpence, or tenpence a day on the sugar-fields is a sufficient inducement for the peasant's labour. Are there no other industries in which the country labourer can take part? Must Barbados remain always a sugar-field? Apparently it must, and Addison's words must remain true, wherein he refers to the fruits of Portugal being corrected by the products of Barbados, and the infusion of a China plant sweetened by the pith of an Indian cane. So long as there is a growing demand for sugar in the world, Barbados is justified in making all she can.

At present the cost of making sugar in Barbados is almost entirely labour, engaged in planting (shovel work), weeding, crushing by the mill directed by wind-power, treatment of juice, packing, transport, &c. All labour, it might be said. The net cost of producing a ton of muscovado sugar in Barbados is from £8, 10s. to £9 per ton, and as the selling price has recently been below this, it follows that the industry has sustained a loss. There is no doubt, however, that by a better system of crushing a larger amount of sugar could be obtained. The crushed canes are full of sweetness, which is lost in the furnaces, to which the "megass," or crushed canes, are consigned as fuel. If it is true that it takes 13.6 tons of cane to make one ton of sugar, whereas with improved machinery it would only take 9.5 tons of cane to produce that ton of sugar, it will be seen how much sugar is lost, perhaps 25 per cent. of the total quantity in the cane. It must not be supposed that this loss of sugar is confined to Barbados, because other colonies show a loss, though not to the same extent. Barbados is a collection of small sugar estates, quite unable individually to bear the cost of, or supply the material for, any improvements in machinery. Hence the proposals for the establishment of central factories, requiring the supply of cane from a number of contiguous estates and farms

at a given percentage of profit, after working up the canes.

That there are lights and shadows in the present condition of Barbados is sufficiently shown in the above sketch. That the patriotism, energy, and good sense of the people will bring the island out of its present troubles, is the earnest wish of all who are acquainted with its striking history, its beautiful climate, and the rich resources of its soil. There is room for the employment of English capital, no doubt, especially in the introduction of new machinery, but the small size of the island—the fact that its resources are utilised practically to their full extent—render it difficult to give any advice as to the prospects of proposed white settlers with an idea of cultivation.

Barbados, as above stated, is now a colony by itself, with its own governor and administration. The Windward Islands, associated under a general government, are those islands lying in the order named from north to south—St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Grenada—the governor usually residing at St. George's, Grenada. The total area of the combined colony is 524 square miles, about twice the size of Middlesex. The population is about 146,000. The total value of imports averages £450,000, and its exports not quite so much, say £420,000. Grenada, the most southerly of the Windward group, is about 21 miles in length and 12 miles in its greatest breadth, containing about 133 square miles. It is a healthy island, affording excellent sea-bathing. The sugar industry in this island has practically died out, and it is producing cocoa in increasing quantities. It is the best example of what has been called the cultivation of the minor industries. Nutmeg and other spices are largely cultivated, and it grows the finest tropical fruits for export to other parts of the West Indies. It affords the most conspicuous and successful illustration of a West

Indian island replacing its sugar by a variety of other productions, and fairly paying its way. Its history begins with the visit of Columbus in August 1498, being then inhabited by Caribs. In 1674 it was possessed by France. In 1763 Great Britain took possession of it by treaty. In 1779 it was again occupied by the French, but again became a British possession in 1783 under the Versailles Treaty of Peace. Still later in the century there was a rebellion against British rule, instigated and assisted by the French, causing much bloodshed and general distress and disaster. The rebellion was suppressed by Sir Ralph Abercromby in 1796.

St. Lucia with its famous Pitons, two great rocks rising 3000 feet sheer out of the sea, is another island discovered by Columbus in his fourth voyage. It is 24 miles in length and 12 in its greatest breadth. Its capital is Castries, looking upon a harbour said to be the best in the West Indies. From its position it has lately acquired some importance, having been selected as a coaling station by her Majesty's Government, and residence for a portion of the troops in the West India command. The Caribs in this island were perhaps more aggressive than in any other part of the West Indies, attacking and murdering the English colonists. The island has been several times—sometimes for considerable periods—in the hands of the French, and has been subjected on various occasions to the operation of important European treaties. In 1782 the great fight took place between Rodney and De Grasse. That British victory had far-reaching consequences, both in the West Indies and in Europe. When matters came to be settled in 1784, the island, containing many French inhabitants, was again given up to France. The French revolutionary excitement extended to St. Lucia; the English had to fight for their existence against the Republican troops. There was long fighting, until at

last, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, the French forces were subdued. The island was, however, again handed to the French in 1802, but finally capitulated in 1803, since which time it has been a British possession. It is a particularly beautiful island, with a temperature of about 80 degrees. It is diversified by hills and valleys, rivers and ravines. It has its *souffrière*, or hill of sulphur, to prove its volcanic origin, and its medicinal baths were at one time largely known, and frequented both by inhabitants and visitors. Commercially and productively it has not been a very successful island, although its strategic position makes it of great importance in the defence plans of the British Government. Sugar, cocoa, logwood, and spices are its products; but the capital invested is devoted to sugar cultivation and machinery, four large usines, or central factories, working up the canes. One of these usines was established with Government aid and large sums of money, but it has not been successful, from various causes, and the money has been practically lost. The other usines, with better management by private companies, have done better, and the prosperity, if not the maintenance of the island as a productive country, is largely due to this sugar industry.

The population is 45,000, principally negroes, increasing by about 1000 a year. The imports are £187,000, of which £93,000 comes from United Kingdom, £31,000 from Colonies, and £61,000 from United States. The exports are valued at £180,000, of which £46,000 are to United Kingdom, £8000 to Colonies, £137,000 (including a considerable quantity of bunker coal for ships) to other places, the sugar going to the United States. There is a public debt of £179,000. About one-third of the island is in cultivation, the remainder, principally virgin forest, belonging to the Crown, but offered for purchase in lots at £1 an acre,



payable in small yearly instalments. There are some coolies in the island, the result of former immigration from India. It is occasionally subject to severe hurricanes. Its soil is deep and rich, eminently adapted for the sugar-cane. The St. Lucia snakes are also in evidence. There is no reason, with its admirably equipped usines, that its sugar industry should not again be prosperous, when the present depression, which afflicts all cane-sugar interests, shall have passed away.

St. Vincent, one of the discoveries of Columbus, was originally a Carib country. Many theories have been advanced as to the origin of these Indians. It would require a long statement as to their history and presence in the West Indies, their character and capacity. They made their presence felt in St. Vincent more than in any other island. They have, however, retired, like every other aboriginal race (or supposed aboriginal, for their ancestry has not been definitely traced either by Humboldt or Schomburgk), before the white man; but in the West Indies, especially in St. Vincent, they have often exhibited warlike qualities both of defence and aggression (an extensive district being at one time allotted to them). With a small white population and a numerous slave population, it has been subject to all the controversies between France and England, being at various times both French and English. St. Vincent has its undulating grounds, together with its volcanic mountain or *souffrière*. It has been principally dependent upon sugar, rum, and arrowroot. Sugar, however, has practically disappeared, and Mr. Chamberlain has obtained a Parliamentary grant to settle labourers on the abandoned sugar estates. The financial accounts show a revenue and expenditure respectively of about £30,000: an import value of £70,000, made up as follows: £30,000 from United Kingdom, £30,000

from Colonies, and £10,000 from elsewhere. The exports amount to £67,000—viz. £21,000 to United Kingdom, £16,000 to Colonies, and £30,000 to other places (principally sugar to the United States). Arrowroot, which was largely used to mix with manufactured cocoa in Europe, is now not so used, the pure cocoa being sold by the large distributors. Altogether it seems that a rich and productive country lies practically abandoned. The people are earning no wages, many of them looking forward to Mr. Chamberlain's scheme of legalised squatting upon abandoned estates. The Secretary of State does not seem to have considered how the revenue is to be raised from these squatters. The sugar industry has been destroyed, the St. Vincent arrowroot is largely unsaleable, and does not pay its freight, a poverty-stricken population bathed in tropical sunshine is upon the hands of the Government, and the final scene will display the staff of the policeman and the rifle of the soldier, if an effort be not made by Government to avert such issue. And all for the want of a sensible administration to govern 2400 whites, 7500 coloured, and 31,000 blacks. An expenditure of £30,000 on useless officials and worn-out people, who have spent their energies in Government work on the pestilential coast of West Africa, is one of the grimmest jokes in the Colonial administration of Great Britain. The principal industries being unprofitable or abandoned, Mr. Chamberlain is reduced to the last expedient of turning the people loose upon the lands, charging rents which he will never get, and instituting a system (founded upon roots and other ground provisions) which his officials cannot control. A negro squatter is often not to be trusted either to pay rent or discharge any of his liabilities. He is obliged to pay his share of taxation so far (and only so far) as his consumption of imported

articles is concerned, in addition, of course, to the excise duty he pays for the rum he consumes. In the present state of affairs it is, indeed, difficult to know what to suggest for the interests of such an island as St. Vincent. Mr. Chamberlain does not know, as he confines his attention to a money grant to settle people who will not settle, and make people work whose irresistible tendency is to do no work at all.

The Leeward Islands, so called because they are not so subject as the Windward to the N.E. trade-wind, are the most northerly of the Lesser Antilles; some of them belong to foreign nationalities. The principal colonies of the English Leeward Islands comprise Antigua, Montserrat, St. Kittos, Nevis, Dominica, and the Virgin Islands, of which St. Thomas is the chief, formerly a mail station. The total population of the combined English colony is about 130,000, and its total area about the size of the county of Surrey. All these islands were discovered by Columbus in 1493. The mean temperature is about  $80^{\circ}$ , but the rainfall differs slightly in each island. Antigua, for instance, is subject to drought. The combination of these islands into one government was effected by the Imperial Act of 1871. But the general impression is that the colony is officially over-manned. Antigua has just given up its elective constitution, in order to secure the grant in aid promised by the Imperial Government. Dominica has done the same, for, with a population of 26,000, and a body of voters numbering under 200, Crown Colony Government was the only possible resort. With a total import and export trade of the combined colony of £900,000, an expenditure of £160,000 is of course indefensible. The total population of the colony cannot be more than 150,000. As for Antigua, which is now a Crown Colony, the elective system having been properly ended, it is an interesting island of 108 square miles. The

old planting families are not now in existence, although their palatial residences are still existing in ruins. The pine-apples are good, but the sugar industry, through lack of capital, has been much restricted. Antigua exports, of course, nearly the whole of its productions to the United States. It grows about 15,000 tons of sugar. It is burdened with an enormous civil establishment, and it is quite time that the Home Government should take control of its finances. Antigua and the other islands in the group have been simply sinking into the sea under the weight of useless official salaries and the Gilbertian arrangements of elective government.

Even Froude, superficial and rather narrow-minded as he showed himself in his book on the West Indies, saw this clearly, especially when he kept himself apart from the talk and good-fellowship of the clubs. The old style of sugar production, by which at least half the sugar is left in the cane and simply burnt up for fuel, will not do any longer. The island is approaching the Imperial Government *in forma pauperis*, and it is not probable that Mr. Chamberlain will consent to money being advanced unless it is likely to be profitably spent. And yet Antigua is an interesting island with a varied history, dating from the time of Lord Willoughby of Parham, in the middle of the seventeenth century. There are no lofty woods to attract rain, and the climate is dry, the water supply causing some anxiety. There are hills and valleys, creeks and bays, and St. John's, the capital, has a fairly good sea approach. The island is well adapted for fruit and root cultivation, but little effort has been made to export the fruit in proper condition. As a garden country, apart from sugar, it might be made profitable. But its present state, with no good prices for even the small quantity of sugar it produces, is simply deplorable.



Now, the little island of St. Kitts, containing an area of about seventy square miles, is really a good example of the sugar industry. It is, of course, overburdened with officials and an absurdly overgrown public debt. It is now joined with Nevis and Anguilla, and a total population of 50,000 black people are expected to support an expenditure of £60,000, with a trade of £190,000 imports and £200,000 exports, nearly all of the latter going to the United States. On the whole, the sugar industry of St. Kitts has been profitable, maintaining several well-known families in England. But people at home, of course, simply look upon these distant properties for what they will bring, and the social condition of the black labourers causes much anxiety. St. Kitts, like several of the other small islands, will soon be composed of a black peasantry with whom the Colonial Office will have to deal. It is in these smaller islands that Mr. Froude's prophecies (so foolish in the case of the larger colonies) will sooner or later come true. St. Kitts, or St. Christopher, is one of the oldest of the West Indian settlements. It has always been a plucky little place. Its arms represent the great discoverer on his quarter-deck. Its highest point is strangely named Mount Misery, 3700 feet high, and there is also another cheerful place called Brimstone Hill. Round the feet of the mountains is the cultivated land. Altogether St. Kitts is a good little place, and the late Lord Combermere, who was largely interested in estates there, and who enjoyed his occasional visits, said it was like the best market gardening in England; and as a gentleman farmer himself, he was capable of expressing an opinion. St. Kitts has its touch of hurricanes sometimes, but its rainfall is moderate, and its temperature equable and cool. A hermit might live there comfortably with plenty of books, and a now-forgotten poet, Grainger, once brought Sir Joshua Reynolds and the Literary

Club a new sensation by his poem on the "Sugar-Cane." Altogether, one dwells upon St. Kitts with a certain degree of fondness, which the associations of other colonies do not always inspire.

Nevis, adjoining St. Kitts, has nothing but its recollections of past prosperity to show; and we next come to Montserrat, a little island which Carlyle once described as an inverted washbowl. In size it is very much less than the estate of a small country gentleman in England, with a staff of officials, comprising Governor (or Commissioner), Executive Council, Legislative Council, and all the rest of them, which the owner of an English estate would not tolerate for an instant. Indeed, no English estate could possibly stand the "management" imposed upon Montserrat by the Home Government. It grows and exports about 2000 tons of sugar annually, but its chief industry is the famous lime-juice produced by the firm of Sturge in Birmingham, who were nearly related to the great anti-slavery Edmund Sturge of the last generation. The Montserrat Company (Limited) are to be congratulated upon their successful utilisation of the lime groves in this little island.

Dominica, the other principal island of the Leeward Government, is always interesting. Next to Jamaica, it is perhaps the best known of the West Indian Islands to the English public. At one time its slopes were covered with coffee trees. It is exceedingly hilly, and generally picturesque. It has had its experiences in the controversies between the French and English. It grows coffee, cocoa, and sugar still, but in small quantities. Spices, lime-juice, and timber are also among its products. A large amount of money has been wasted in public works which have never been useful, in roads which have led to nowhere, and in bridges which have been washed away by the first flood. The Imperial Government have now been called

upon to pay the bill for these, and in return it demands, and very properly too, the complete control of the island finances. Yet Dominica ought to be made a paying member of the empire, as Mr. Naftel, a Ceylon expert, has recently shown in a public report.

There seems an impression that all these small West Indian Islands are worn out. There is, indeed little room for fresh capital and energy from Europe. The bounty system forbids any increase of sugar cultivation, but a certain amount of money might, after judicious investigation, and with the retaining of a strict control over expenditure, be profitably expended by English settlers in Dominica, attracted by a tropical life, and accustomed to look assiduously after their own affairs.

## TRINIDAD, B.W.I.

By H. SILVESTER WILLIAMS

TRINIDAD—an island in the Caribbean Sea, an arm of the mighty and boisterous Atlantic Ocean. Strictly speaking, it belongs to the American archipelago, commonly known as the West Indies. It lies to the north-east of Venezuela, between  $10^{\circ} 3'$  and  $10^{\circ} 50'$  N. latitude, and  $61^{\circ} 39'$  and  $62^{\circ}$  W. longitude, and maintains the significant propriety of being the last of the great chain of islands commanding the delta of the famous Orinoco River, which is an important waterway for Venezuelan cities and towns situated thereon.

A rectangle would best indicate the shape of the island, with an area of 1854 square miles, giving an acreage of 1,120,000 acres of land, and a present population of nearly 245,000 souls.

Entering into the Gulf of Paria, which is the harbour, and holds the site of the beautiful city of Port of Spain, the capital, the traveller is compelled to cross either of the leeways known as “the Bocases,” principal of which are “Boca Grande,” or Grand Bocas; “Boca de La Sierpe,” or Serpent’s Mouth; and the Dragon’s Mouth.

This important island, now famous universally for its pitch lake, “waterfalls,” or cascades, was discovered by the great Spanish explorer, Christopher Columbus, in the year 1498, after his return from the Spanish court, where he had received distinction and honour for the discovery of America in 1492. Cruising along the coast of the newly-discovered



territory, it was his pleasure to spy from some distance three towering spires of land, and gradually nearing the shores, the beautiful island broke upon his wake. This incident, coupled with the fact that the time of the discovery being about Trinity season of the year, is supposed to account for its name of "La Trinidad." Naturally it became Spanish possession, similarly as the greater part of America did, with San José de Arima as its capital. No other nation seemed to have sailed the Caribbean Sea till Humboldt, who, in describing this island, says: "The detached cliffs, which appear to the observer on entering the harbour, were supposed to have formed a rocky barrier which united the island of Trinidad to the continent of South America, but which has been broken down, either by some mighty convulsion of nature, or by the powerful volume of water which is constantly discharged from the numerous mouths of the majestic Orinoco." For proof, "the current is still very strong, and the navigation is intricate and dangerous, especially for sailing vessels." Shortly after this survey, which awakened the adventurous propensity of Englishmen, Sir Walter Raleigh invaded the island in 1595, and led a small army against the Spaniards under the control of De Barrio, the Governor, completely set him and his troops to flight, and fired the town of San José. By diplomatic negotiations, Trinidad remained in the hands of the Spaniards till 1797. During the two hundred years which elapsed between the death of Barrio and the final capture by the British, many attacks were made upon the island. The Dutch attacked it in 1640; the British in 1672; the French, under the Marquis de Maintenon, in 1677; and many were the depredations made by roving adventurers, called buccaneers, who ravaged the place excessively. Great was the unrest of these trying centuries, and consequently there followed a rapid diminution of the population. In 1773, says

the historian, H. J. Clarke, of Port of Spain, there were only 162 male adults, exclusive of slaves and the native Caribs; the total revenue being less than £48 sterling.

The new start which the island took is directly traceable to M. Roume de Saint Laurent, a Frenchman, who came over to the island on a visit. He was struck by the prolific nature of the soil, and other natural resources, and at once decided to settle there. By negotiations with the court of Spain, he was enabled to organise a liberal scheme of colonisation, which has since played so wonderful a part in the future of "Ire, the land of the humming-bird."

The later part of the eighteenth century witnessed the total downfall of Spanish rule, under the able governorship of Sir Ralph Abercromby. In 1797 he wrested the sway from General José Marie Chacon, who capitulated the island; but, by the red-tapeism of Downing Street, it was never finally ceded to Great Britain till 1802, by the treaty of Amiens.

Its qualities as a productive country were perceived early by the Spaniards; for in 1780-83 the Madrid Government spared no means in procuring and encouraging immigrants to its shores. Since then the progress was slow, occasioned by the disastrous struggles between the English and the Spanish.

British rule has undoubtedly improved things. The town of Port of Spain—most modern in all its forms, means of conveyance, buildings, electric tram-cars, sanitary market, and excellent system of sanitation—is a monument of British progressiveness, and compares favourably with any city of the new world. The other towns, San Fernando, Arima, Princetown, San Joseph, and even Tunapuna, do credit to British régime.

From the time of the British accession to the island, Crown Colony has been the form of government.

Much can be said for its benefit in the early part of the century, since the establishment of British rule, but I am firmly of the opinion that at present representation would best suit the exigencies of circumstances. This opinion will not be shared by all; it is not expected; but objectors will wisely act by viewing matters with the sight of a progressive political economist. Representation, as the government of this day and generation, is the system of the "survival of the fittest." Those who support a government by their taxes ought surely to be represented in the body which legislates for the welfare and guidance of that community. No self-constituted body can represent clearly and efficiently the needs and grievances of a people differing most technically in customs and habits, especially when the members of that body are separate and removed from the people.

Throughout the colonial history of the country, a phalanx of noble governors is to be witnessed. Some have been sturdy, and others have exhibited a deplorable weakness. After all, they were but human, subjected to the inexorable frailty of man. Of the first class, the names of Lord Harris and Sir Arthur Gordon, now Lord Stanhope, will ever emblazon the pages of its history. Lord Harris met ruin and left prosperity. To him is due the system of coolie immigration, which goes on to-day. He legislated to meet the needs of the education of the ex-slaves in 1846, which was then sadly neglected by his predecessors—in short, it may with much justification be said, "he created order out of chaos," being conscientious in his convictions.

In the strong and great personality of Sir Arthur Gordon, the island was destined to prosper more and more. Though he governed for the short period of four years, his name is carved indelibly upon the immortal palisades of the island, and will ever be associated

with the educational scheme of 1870 and the Crown Land Ordinance passed in October 1868. By it these lands were thrown open to the peasants, the natural results being an increase of production and revenue. I must not here forget to note the strenuous opposition these measures received at the hand of the plutocracy, but the Governor was firm, and his almost prophetic developments have shown, beyond the shadow of a doubt, that they were steps in the right direction.

Scanning the onward line in the colonial history, the names which must attract some attention are those of Sir Henry Turner Irving and Sir William Robinson. There is no doubt that, in order to render the inhabitants of our colonial dependencies loyal, law-abiding, and progressive, not only are the laws to be administered justly and wisely, but the character of persons selected to be governors should be a prime feature in making their selection for such an appointment. They ought to be strong, conscientious, and, above all, "Christian" men. In a word, they ought not to be easily swayed by *ex parte* opinions, but prone to reason and be reasonable; such, in my very humble opinion, are valuable and *sine quâ non* principles in dealing with the heterogeneous peoples of this great empire.

I am convinced that, wherever British rule dominates, the peoples are bound to experience a healthier state of existence than otherwise. Some will remark this is a generous and sweeping assertion; and to make myself clearly understood, I emphasise that it must be administered according to the spirit of the constitution. In the face of certain conditions happening in territories under British influence, there is much to grieve the nation's conscience. People are amazed at the tacit permission, if not complicity, on the part of the present Government, in the flagrant outrages perpetrated. The spirit and letter of the British Constitution allow



every subject freedom, right, and justice. Laws are enacted with an aim to produce these qualities, but it must be confessed and acknowledged that very often the administration of said laws is to be deprecated. Infrequently the administrators prove weakness, or utter incapacity.

The mixed population of Trinidad may be computed at 245,000, comprising members of the African race, East Indians, Europeans, and a few descendants of the old Carib stock. Space does not permit a detailed proportion of each; suffice it that the blacks are in the majority, the East Indians follow, and the Europeans are comparatively small, numbering not more than 18,000. This heterogeneous mass thrive most amicably under the British rule. There is not that miasmie colour differentiation which is noticeable in proceedings in other parts of the world, and, too, in parts of the British Empire. Education has considerably eradicated that ephemeral mysticism which is the creature of ignorance, in the minds of some, and which still regrettably prevails largely in a well-known quarter of the globe, about the capacity of the black race. Justice is administered in Trinidad fearlessly and unprejudicially, but the fact is pertinent—very often the poor are deprived of speedy justice, when monetary considerations are to be reckoned with.

The system of education is fair; and I should like to see it free and compulsory, so that the masses may become thinkers, as well as “hewers of wood and drawers of water.” Labour and education are profitable to all men, and, like twin sisters, ought never to be disassociated. Emancipation in the West Indies has been of express benefit to the natives generally. In the short time, their progress has been phenomenal. Previous to the enactment of 1834, little was known of the black man’s ability—in fact it was discredited, and enshrouded in a circumstantially dense cloud—but

now we boast of men in every department of progress, in literature, physics, science, and art. British rule has developed this, and in consequence the people are loyal, law-abiding, and patriotic. I instance no more glorious demonstration than the Queen's Jubilee of 1897, when our Trinidad Volunteers, representing the sense of the population, ably and proudly exhibited their fealty to this nation. The significance of the object-lesson bespoke volumes, and indicates a precedent it is possible to expect from other natives, all things being equal. To-day, in the island of Trinidad, were you to come in conversation with a "son of the soil," on the streets of Port of Spain, and question him about a holiday trip, at once he would reply, "I should like to go home." The interlocutor will be puzzled to know what "home" is meant, when, to his surprise, he will discover that England is the goal described as "home." This is a fact.

The very critical and disastrous wave which wafts the West Indies at this moment has likewise washed the shores of this beautiful island, and her economic conditions have suffered. The people naturally, therefore, have had to bear the severity of the times; their present condition cannot be described as prosperous. Rate of wage at any time is not the most encouraging in the West Indies, and at present the scale is most deplorable. The average rate in Trinidad ranges from ninepence to three shillings per day. The first item the labourer receives, and the second the artisan. Even in the tropics this is insufficient, because English civilisation imports improvement and progress, and under no consideration can these people efficiently satisfy the wants of their families. They have to pay for education, and more—keep "up to date."

Here let me disabuse the minds of readers of a fallacy and calumny thrown upon the blacks of the West Indies, which I have often had to refute.

It is said by not a few that the Negroes of these islands will not work; that they are lazy and indolent, "and this inertness of the people is a valid excuse for the coolie immigration." Readers will please consider the propensity of human beings to be independent, the rate of wage which prevails in these islands, the requirements which civilisation demands, and say, with careful reasoning, whether the compensation justifies the expenditure of labour from 6 A.M. till 5 P.M., and sometimes later. I referred earlier in the course of this paper to Lord Stanhope's Act, called the Crown Land Ordinance. By this Act the people were able to purchase Crown lands, and tilled them to the best of their abilities. They became peasant farmers, producing cocoa, coffee, coco-nuts, and even sugar-cane. There are 18,000 of this class in the island, contributing largely to the revenue. Were they still labouring on the plantations, they would be slaves to the greed of the large absentee proprietor, whereas peasant farming has made them independent; and, in support of the conclusive foresight of the Commissioners who reported on the distress of the islands recently, I recommend also a greater encouragement of this system of "peasant farming." Thus, I venture to suggest, by putting the Crown lands in an easier grasp for every man, so that he may attend to other industries, viz. fruit-growing, spices, tobacco, &c.; by so doing, in the event of the return of a crisis in the staple industry, such may come to the rescue. Were it not for the cocoa-planters and other growers, both in Trinidad and Jamaica, the seriousness resulting from the fall in sugar would be most appalling. The natives have resigned themselves to a future welfare in the island, and it is wholly impracticable to persuade them otherwise. Another feature which, if remedied, would enhance the present condition of the people, is the cancelling of that iniquitous tax the taxpayer is com-

pelled to defray, to meet the cost of coolie immigration. The planters benefit by this measure, and therefore they ought to bear the expenses of importing these people to the island.

Throughout the island, the resplendent scenery presents a most imposing grandeur. Its natural charms and sylvan beauty are rivalled only by an imaginary paradise. The flora and fauna are of the rarest and richest, and beggar description. The great Charles Kingsley himself is lost in profound admiration of the natural scenes, as we notice from his writings. He says: "In the presence of such forms and colouring one becomes painfully sensible of the poverty of words, and of the futility therefore of all word-painting." The soil yields in abundance to the skilled hand of the agriculturist. This veritable garden, called the Pearl of the Antilles, has not been sufficiently advertised. The perceptive intuitiveness of Messrs. Cook & Sons is needed to attract tourists to this sanatorium.

Colonists who have gone there have found a salubrious and equable climate, and have resolved to remain and make England a pleasure-seeking hunting ground. They are of English, Scotch, and Irish families. The last of these are usually associated with the "police force"; the other two are either merchants or overseers on the various plantations. Like most of the other islands, Trinidad suffers from the drain of absenteeism. The great sugar-planters live abroad, and benefits which would accrue to the country otherwise are for ever lost. "The apple-tree produces luscious fruits in abundance, but sufficient nutriment is not given the soil, from which so much is expected." The system in vogue throughout these unhappy islands is one of "suck"—no replenishing.

A new system is needed. Capitalists will find a large and compensating field for their investments: and



I venture to prophesy that the interests will be at compound rate.

The fertility of the soil encourages agriculture; growth is facile. Labour can be had plentifully, if a reasonable rate of wage is paid. I shall here quote from Mr. Herman Cruger, the botanist, who visited the island not long since in search of rare plants. Writing on his way to the Cascade, he relates: "The shrubs are of the finest species to be found in any part of the globe." Giving a description of the plants and wild growth he traversed when nearing Chorro or Cascade, he says: "Thousands of interesting objects now attract your attention: here the wonderful norantia or the resplendent calycophyllum, a tabernæmontana or faramea, filling the air afar off with the fragrance of their blossoms; there a graceful heliconia, winking at you from out some dark ravine. That shrubbery above is a species of boehmeria or ardisia; and that scarlet flower belongs to our native aphelandra. The rich begonia flourishes here; and here also is an assemblage of ferns, of the genera asplenium, hymenophyllum, and trichomanes, as well as hepaticas and mosses."

Surely the æsthetic taste of a high-bred Englishman, the man of means, would not suffer, were he to make his abode in Trinidad. But I think I am diverging from my object, and must return. Already I have stated that colonists starting out to settle in Trinidad should not expect to find an El Dorado. Perhaps, with his ingenuity, he may find a real gold-mine, but not in the sugar industry at present. The things which should command, and deserve, great consideration are the cocoa, coffee, tobacco, fruits, and other minor industries. The institution of factories for making paper, flour, and other articles of general use will flourish. Trinidad is a sort of emporium for Venezuela, and a market can easily be created. What the islands require are progressive up-to-date capitalists,

who will live amidst her roseates, participate in her ebb and flood tides, improve her sources of revenue, and thus better the low state of the labouring classes. This will not only redound creditably to the individual, but, as Mr. Lecky puts it, will “magnify the prosperity of our colonies.”

Citing a reference from the works of one of England's recent historians, he says: “The colonists who inhabit these islands have greatly degenerated, and become ‘parasitical non-workers’; hard labour is loathsome to them; but they are eager to eat bread from the sweat of other people's brows.” In England every man is willing to do something—plough, go a-haying, become a butcher, a shoemaker, or a tinker; in the colonies such honest pursuits are regarded as shameful and disgraceful. Government offices are considered their hereditary sinecures, and all else absolutely out of their range. “The natives bear the brunt of the day.”

As regards the suitability of the country for colonisation, I can quote no abler authority than Mr. Henry James Clarke, of Port of Spain, who writes, in his sketch of the island of Trinidad:—

“In view of the fact that inquiries are often made as to whether there is any opening in the colony for active young men, possessed of only a limited amount of capital, and anxious to find an occupation as well as an investment, it may not be out of place to mention that there are three ways in which intending settlers can become cocoa-planters:—

“1. By the purchase of Crown lands, and the clearing and planting up of the same, under their own supervision.

“2. By the purchase of Crown lands, and the employment of contractors, who clear the land and plant it up with cocoa, receiving as payment all the wood cut down, and

the free use of the land to plant provisions for their own use and benefit for a fixed term—generally five years—at the end of which time they give up the land, receiving one shilling for each bearing cocoa-tree.

- “ 3. By the purchase, either of several small estates, or of one such bordering on Crown lands, so that it can be gradually extended, according to the means of the purchasers.”

On the question of health and climatic hindrances, there can be no doubt of the bracing elements which produce energy. The mean maximum temperature is  $86^{\circ}$ , the mean minimum is  $69^{\circ}$ , while the mean annual is  $70^{\circ}$ . The parks and squares of the island, viz. Queen's Park, Marine and Brunswick Squares, would embellish any high-grade Continental city. Charles Kingsley, in describing the Queen's Park, situated at the base of the graceful St. Ann Hills, with its race-ground and drive three miles in circumference, says it is superior to anything London or Paris can boast of.

The favourite watering-place for the inhabitants is the Five Islands; they afford splendid convenience for salt-water plunges. Again, the Botanical Gardens are situated near the city, and contain the most varied and rarest species of plants to be found throughout the tropics. Indeed it is generally conceded the best garden of its kind in the West Indies. In the centre of it is the palatial residence of the Governor, erected in 1875, after the Indian model, built of native limestone at a cost of £50,000 sterling. Americans envy this building greatly, being, it is said, superior to the President's house at Washington. Time can be flitted away there as anywhere else; but if a man is willing to work, and can spare a little capital, let him try La Belle Trinidad: for, with industry and perseverance, he

will surely find a Klondyke in this most delightful and charming island of the West.

Trade in Trinidad is fair. The total imports, according to Whitaker, amount to nearly  $2\frac{3}{4}$  millions, and the exports to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  million pounds sterling. It is chiefly carried on with Great Britain, Canada, France, U.S. America, and Venezuela. The revenue from which Government officials are paid is derived from various taxes, duties, and subsidies. The extensive trade in asphaltum, from the famous Pitch Lake of Trinidad, adds considerably to the treasury. The articles of export are principally sugar, cocoa, rum, molasses, bitters, coco-nuts, and asphalt. The imports are dry goods, cured provisions, manufactured articles, cutlery, agricultural implements, machinery, &c.

I am indebted to Mr. Clarke again for the statistics I shall quote here, showing the amount of trade done in the years 1891 and 1892 :—

*United Kingdom.*

	Imports.	Exports.
1891 . . . .	£777,658	£728,998
1892 . . . .	759,839	798,482

*British Colonies.*

	Imports.	Exports.
1891 . . . .	£235,846	£70,088
1892 . . . .	239,550	48,329

*U.S. America.*

	Imports.	Exports.
1891 . . . .	£422,190	£736,345
1892 . . . .	456,982	811,032

*Venezuela.*

	Imports.	Exports.
1891 . . . .	£381,225	£233,279
1892 . . . .	398,892	198,650



*France.*

	Imports.	Exports.
1891 . . . .	£118,781	£184,666
1892 . . . .	92,175	277,318

*All other Countries.*

	Imports.	Exports.
1891 . . . .	£161,079	£105,385
1892 . . . .	142,242	129,252

Later statistics will show, I am persuaded, an improvement upon these figures. They have only been submitted that an idea of the trade carried on may be gathered. A large trade is done with the United States, and this is due to the agility of the Yankees. Transport means are frequent and fast between the United States and the islands. The market in this country is very luring: but I may confess that the idea of Canada, which is to give preference to all British and British Colonial produce, ought certainly to increase the trade of Trinidad in the Canadian market. For my part, I see no reason why the trade with the mother country ought not to double its proportion at this time. At present little or no Trinidad fruits find their way into the English market, for the reason that special liners do not ply between Great Britain and her West Indian Colonies, to effect a safe and rapid transport, which is necessary for fruits.

Trinidad, as already referred to, is governed by the Crown Colony system. A Governor is sent out from England, and the Legislature consists of official and non-official members, who are nominated by the Governor and sanctioned by the Colonial Secretary of State. The element of election is foreign to the Legislature. Progressives have come to the conclusion that it has had its day, and that it would do well to be "out of the way." Some contend that Repre-

sentative Government suits an educated people, and its working will not satisfy every need of the very mixed population of the island. This, to my mind, is a "bogey." The very fact that the conditions are varied, and despite this, all speak the English language, and contribute to the support of Crown Colony, is a reason *a fortiori* that their interests ought to be represented.

Repeatedly have I striven to rebut such feeble argument by the statement, "Narrowness sees nothing but proscription; and no matter how impressionable the line may be, it dares press beyond it."

There is no problem but has its solution; and, admitting the state of the peoples on the island to be highly problematic, what attempts have been made to effect a solution? I am afraid the masses have not yet produced an unselfish leader. They must continue to bear the excruciating pangs of the heartless system of Crown Colony, which is a synonym for racial contempt. By it the subject fails to realise his *civis Britannicus sum*, and thus loses much of the pride in being a British subject. Philip Rostant did his best, and others should follow. The spirit ought never to perish, though the odds be strongly against us. There is no surer success greater than that of perseverance; and to-day, when taxation without representation is a gross crime, I see no reason why the island should be outside this happy state.

The laws of the country respecting marriage, land, industry, &c., are the same as in the United Kingdom. The Indians, or coolie immigrants, were in the habit of conforming to their own customs practised in India, *i.e.* "infant marriage," but this has been sufficiently remedied by legislative measures. The difference between the laws in Trinidad and those of Great Britain—if difference—is, they are localised to meet the exigencies of insular circumstances. The principles are founded

upon Blackstone, Stephens, Bentham, and Snell. Our judges hold their seats according to the requirements of the Act of Settlement. Lands are generally freehold, the purchaser getting full title and ownership from the Crown, which is the vendor.

I have endeavoured to put before my readers plain facts, and have even tried at suggestions; but I must admit incompetence to do justice to so important a subject as this one. If my bounds have been overstepped, I have done so unconsciously, being filled with a desire to welcome a proper welfare for the people; and also with the longing wish to see every man holding and appreciating his own as a full Britisher, and not one who must be nursed, but as one who enjoys the *entente cordiale* of the significance.

## BRITISH HONDURAS

By SYDNEY OLIVIER, C.M.G.

THE Colony of British Honduras covers an area of about 7500 square miles on the eastern slope of Central America. Its coast-line runs from the mouth of the River Hondo, discharging into the shallow, landlocked bay of Chetumal, at the southern boundary of Yucatan, the heel province of Mexico (which juts towards Cuba and Florida to embrace the Mexican Gulf). It runs to the southward, curving a little south-west, for about 160 miles to the River Sarstoon, at the innermost corner of the Gulf of Honduras, from which the shores of Guatemala and the Republic of Spanish Honduras—the “Mosquito Coast”—start out again due eastwards.

The whole length of this eastern-facing sea-board, fronting the trade-wind, which blows with hardly any interruption for eight or nine months in the year, is fenced from the attack of the ceaseless rollers that come before that wind over fifteen hundred miles of the Caribbean Sea, past Jamaica, by a line of reefs and cays—the latter low islands formed of coral *detritus* and sand within the shield of the reef as it grows slowly outward into blue water. The cays are, for the most part, covered with mangrove bush: bright green in the sun, above a narrow strip of dazzling white sand and coral dust, to seaward. Between them and the mangrove fringe of the coast is a belt—some eight or ten miles wide—of protected water, swarming with fish, deep enough for the frequent traffic of steamers,



schooners, lighters, and lesser coasting craft that plies between the settlements of the coast and the ports of the Republics north and south.

The principal town, Belize, at the outer edge of the delta of the Belize, or Old River, and on its southern mouth, has a good roadstead for ships, with a deep and somewhat winding channel leading out through the reefs: a channel left, it may be conjectured, where the river water kept in check the coral that all around grew up to low-water level. The site of the town itself is nothing better than an ancient double bar or sandy mudbank in the estuary of the river, made up with ships' ballast, mahogany chips, fascines, and broken beer and whisky bottles. Behind the town are miles of mangrove swamps in which the sea-water still flows. The country north of Belize is in general flat, with but slight undulations and eminences. To the south and south-west it becomes hilly and even mountainous; the main ridges rising as high as 4000 feet within about fifteen miles from the sea, and the hills encroaching more and more on the low bush and mangrove swamps of the coast until towards the bottom of the bay they oust them altogether and show red cliffs.

The rivers, sluggish and navigable for long distances inland in the northern half of the territory, grow shorter, swifter, rockier, and more difficult as the hills approach the sea. Their valleys contain many thousands of acres of rich, deep alluvial soil, still covered, for the most part, with dense forest. Dense forest covers the greater parts of the country, but there is variety, within easy reach of the coast, of open thin pasture, studded with pine-trees and scrub, broken bush, palmetto- and logwood-swamps and lagoons. On a visitor it impresses itself as a pleasant and even beautiful land; its residents boast its healthiness, and yet it remains little known as a British Colony, commer-

cially unimportant, a source of inconsiderable wealth to its inhabitants and the Empire.

The principal concern of the settlers has been from the first, and still is, the sylvan and uncivilising industry of logwood and mahogany cutting. The only other export of much importance is now that of bananas, to the United States of America, a trade of comparatively recent development. The sugar-trade, once promising, is dead. Without exaggeration, however, it may be said that there is not any tropical agricultural product that cannot, so far as depends on soil and climate, be grown to high perfection in British Honduras; the obstacles to the commercial success in the development of these natural advantages are the scarcity and high cost of labour for agricultural industry.

The history of the settlement is peculiar; its population (31,500 in 1891) consists of a notable variety of elements, of which six at least form distinct and considerable classes.

The earliest known occupants survive in the native Indian (Maya) element, living chiefly in forest villages in the west and north of the Colony, away from the sea-coast. These Indians are short, whitey-brown coloured, inoffensive as inhabitants, though callous and even cruel in disposition. Their villages are of palm-leaf huts: they work to some extent as logwood cutters: they raise some corn in clearings in the forest, burning the trees, and passing on to new ground every two or three years. They are nominally Roman Catholics, but practically for the most part poly-fetichists. They are believed to be the direct descendants and representatives of the people that built the large stone sculptured temples and the buildings whose ruins now form the "Indian Mounds" that are found in the central forests and in the north of the colony.

The first European settlers were English bucca-

neers, who occupied the coast in 1638. They carried on the cutting and export of logwood in defiance or under tolerance of Spain. Their numbers increased rapidly towards the end of the seventeenth century, by which time there is recorded to have been as many as 700 engaged in the industry. It was not until 1798 that, after repeated vicissitudes of tenure, the colony became finally British territory, through the defeat, in the "Battle of St. George's Cay," of a Spanish force sent to reduce the settlers. Since that date the European element has been reinforced by a strong Scotch mercantile infusion, accompanied by the ubiquitous German competitor, the trading class of the colony being now almost entirely Scotch and German, with some mixture of Spanish from the neighbouring Republics. After the American Civil War there was a limited immigration from the Southern States. These settlers took up land in the southern district, where they still grow sugar for local consumption. There is also a "German settlement" of planters on Stann Creek.

The backbone of the wood-cutting population is the class known as "Belize Creoles," of more or less pure descent from African negroes imported from the West Indies as slaves or engaged as labourers.

The settlement not having been agricultural (indeed, Spain allowed no plantations), but occupied with the cutting of logwood (and later, of mahogany timber), the plantation system of other West Indian Colonies and the sugar-estate economy of slavery were never developed here. Moreover, the slaves in British Honduras, from the necessities of the conditions of their employment in the forest industry, at isolated timber camps up the rivers, enjoyed much greater freedom and independence, and a nearer approach to equality with their employers than did slaves on the West Indian sugar plantations. They worked side by



side with their masters at axe-work in the forest mixed with labourers imported on hire from Jamaica, the Bahamas, and Bermuda, well fed, well paid too in "truck" (for hard money was a commodity scarcely known), and when the Spanish fleet attacked the colony they fought willingly side by side with their owners at the battle of St. George's Cay. And even to this day it will be recognised by persons well acquainted with the colonies, that the Creole of Belize compares most favourably, not only in physique but in character and general intelligence, with the average of his kindred in the West Indies and British Guiana. The negroes of the island of Barbuda are perhaps the nearest parallel to him.

The fourth element, after Indian, European, and African is the Carib of the southern districts. The Caribs are an interesting people of hybrid origin, but of very well-marked physical characteristics and social customs. They descend from a population deported in 1796 from St. Vincent, in the Windward Islands. They were settled in Ruatan, about five thousand in number; thence many of them crossed to the coast of British Honduras. The story of their origin is that about the year 1675 a Guinea slaver was wrecked at St. Vincent, and the survivors intermarried with the native yellow Caribs of the island, which, when settled by English colonists some fifty years later, contained both "black" and "yellow" Caribs. The presence of negro blood, or perhaps one might rather guess, Kroo blood, in the Caribs of British Honduras is evident: the men are nearly black, and have woolly hair, and their bony frame and stature is more that of the African. Curiously enough the women (though they have not the long wavy hair of the yellow Carib) are much more distinctly Carib in appearance than the men. They are shorter, and broad like the Carib, and their skin is much lighter than the men's, being often



of a fine tawny copper, or even almost yellow. The men are excellent labourers when they like, born seamen and fishermen; good at house-building, boat-making, and sail-making. Though lazy and vain, they have more economic impulse than the African or Indian, and, at present, promise better than these as the foundation of a stalk community. They are polygamous, having sometimes several households, one woman controlling each. They are a very cleanly people, the women most indefatigable laundresses and expert cultivators of provision grounds. They do all the tillage for food production, occasionally, it is said, employing their husbands at wages. The latter may, however, be seen when at home making hammocks and clothes. Cassava is their staple crop; they cultivate, however, all kinds of ground provisions, as well as bananas, on their "Carib reserves" and other holdings, and make money by marketing them. Their "bread" is made of pounded cassava root, baked in round, thin sheets about two feet across. The proper sauce to eat it with is sea-water, in which it is dipped, on the boat-journeys, to soften it. The Caribs still speak a special language derived from their original island Carib, but also Spanish and generally English as well. They chiefly inhabit the coast villages in the south of the colony.

Intermixed with the Caribs in the south is a mongrel Spanish-Indian population of Waikas, Ladinos, Mosquitos, from Guatemala and Honduras, distinct, as regards their Indian blood, from the Mayas of the north and west.

Again, in the northern district, between the Rio Hondo and the New River, and scattered farther south towards Belize, is the sixth of the classes above referred to, a Spanish and Spanish-Indian population, representing refugees from Yucatan, driven out by an insurrection of the native Indians in 1848. This Spanish population of the north still lives in fear of "raids" on the

part of the revolted Indian tribes, their former servants, that live to the north of the Hondo, remembering the tradition of the barbarities that marked their insurrection. They are chiefly agricultural, or engaged in the lighter duties of the forest industry.

The Indians to the west and north-west of the northern part of the colony are known as the Icaiché tribe, and are under allegiance to Mexico. Their neighbours to the north of the colony are known as the Santa Cruz tribe, the Santa Cruz being the fetich of their Established Church. They were for long on friendly terms with the colony, where they bought their supplies, and have more than once offered their allegiance to Great Britain. On the conclusion of a treaty with Mexico, in 1897, determining the boundary of the colony, the Government prohibited the sale of arms and ammunition to these Indians. They are still in revolt from Mexico, and the Government of that Republic is taking active steps with a view to subduing them. In order, however, to avoid, if possible, a resort to armed invasion, the Mexican Government has agreed to take part in a mission, jointly with English officers appointed by the Government of British Honduras to endeavour to negotiate a peaceful settlement.

A very brief account may suffice of the political constitution of the colony.

The earliest constitution, granted in 1765 by the government of King George III., recognised and established the ancient customs of the settlers of legislating by public meetings of the whole white population and electing magistrates annually by open suffrage. In 1786 a Superintendent was appointed, and an Executive Council was created in 1839 to advise him. In 1819 a Criminal Court was established by Act of Parliament. In 1853 the constitution was revised, and in place of the old popular assembly a legislative body was created,

consisting of eighteen members elected and three nominated by the Crown. In 1862 the settlement was proclaimed a colony, and a Lieutenant-Governor, subordinate to the Governor of Jamaica, was appointed in substitution for a Superintendent. The Legislature in due time became unworkable through factious internal conflict of interests, and in 1870 it voted its own extinction. It was superseded by a Crown Colony Council, consisting of five official and not less than four unofficial members. These proportions have subsequently been reversed, and, since 1892, there has been, in addition to the Governor, a President, three *ex officio* members, and five unofficial members nominated by the Crown. The *ex officio* members are the Colonial Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Attorney-General; the unofficial members are selected so as to represent as fairly as possible the various classes and interests in the colony.

There is also an Executive Council, comprising the same official members as the Legislative Council, with three unofficial members. This Council assists the Governor in his administrative functions where prescribed, and deals in advance with all matters to be submitted to the Legislature.

The Governor is appointed for six years, by the Queen, at a salary of \$8748<sup>1</sup> a year. His chief officers are the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Treasurer (who is also Collector of Customs and Harbour Master), the Surveyor-General, the Colonial Engineer, the Colonial Surgeon, and the Inspectors of Constabulary and Police. The colony has one Judge and six District Commissioners, the latter being both magistrates and administrative officers. In some districts the Commissioners are also Medical Officers, in other districts medical aid is provided for by the appointment of Assistant Colonial Surgeons. The lesser de-

<sup>1</sup> \$4.80 = £1.

partments of the Public Service are the Audit Office, the Post Office, the Education Office, the Botanic Department, and the Prisons Department. The public revenue and expenditure fluctuate about the level of \$300,000 a year; the imports and exports of late years about \$1,500,000; the principal exports still being, as stated above, mahogany and logwood.

The wood-cutting industry is at once still the mainstay of the colony's prosperity and the principal obstacle to its progress. The wages it provides are high in rate, but the employment is not continuous, being interrupted by the annual holiday of two or three months' duration. It results that it is practically impossible to obtain efficient labour, continuously, for agricultural purposes; the Creoles, in fact, prefer the forest industry on almost any terms. At the same time the system of land settlement, whereby the old wood-cutting locations—which generally each had a base of three miles on a navigable river and ran back eight miles, or half-way to the next river-valley—were converted into the freeholds of their occupants, has resulted in immense continuous tracts of land along the principal rivers and on the most fertile valleys, being concentrated in the ownership of a few proprietors. It is not to the interest of these owners to encourage agricultural settlement on these lands, and they do not do so. The settlement of the Creole labourers on lands of their own would probably interfere with the labour supply for the forest industry, always exposed to depression from fluctuating prices and the high rate of wages still paid. From this, and from the preference of the Creole for intermittent work at high pay, and his positive distaste for settlement and contempt for plantation labour, it results that there is not much advance towards the substitution of agricultural industries for mahogany and logwood cutting, whilst these industries are themselves of late years increasingly pre-



carious. The sugar industry, which formerly promised well, the luxuriance and yield of the sugar-cane in the rich virgin soil of the valley clearings being unsurpassed in the West Indies, has practically been crushed between the falling price for sugar in the world's market and the unyielding and even enhanced cost of labour in the colony. The importation of Chinese and of time-expired Indian coolies from Jamaica failed to save it. The sugar plantations which survive only supply coarse sugar and rum for local consumption. The only exception of any importance to the stagnation of agricultural enterprise is found in the banana trade. This is supplied principally from the southern districts of the colony, and to a less extent from the northern districts, by a few large well-managed plantations, and by a number of small cultivators, principally of the Spanish division of the population, and some Caribs, working on small holdings of land bought or leased from the Crown. The fruit is bought by the contractors of the mail steamer service that runs weekly between New Orleans and the colony, and calls at the principal settlements on the coast to the south of Belize. Beyond this agriculture is represented by coco-nut plantations on the cays and along the coast, by the "milpas" or forest maize-plots of the Indians, and the cassava and provision grounds of the Caribs. The Creole is almost wholly non-agricultural. Most butcher's meat is imported alive from Honduras and Guatemala, or on ice by the steamers from New Orleans. The dearth of any cultivated fruits or indigenous vegetables at Belize is remarkable. The Spanish population in the north are more thrifty in this respect, and rear, too, a certain amount of pork and poultry.

The cutting of mahogany and logwood is carried on for the most part by contractors, working either on the lands of the firm for whom they cut or on Crown

lands (in which case a royalty is paid to the Government on every tree brought out, and on every ton of logwood), or in Yucatan or the Republic of Honduras on the other side of the Bay. In some cases the exporting firm employs labour directly. The cutting in Yucatan, in the territory occupied by the independent tribe of the Santa Cruz Indians, is carried on under license from these Indians, to whom royalties or quit-rents are paid. Of late the Mexican Government, in the course of their efforts to re-establish, or at least reassert, their supremacy over this revolted tribe, have succeeded, by establishing patrols of gun-boats, and a kind of floating custom-house at the mouth of the Rio Hondo, in exacting a second royalty for the Republic on wood cut in Yucatan, an arrangement which has diminished the profits of the trade in this direction. The Icaiché tribe of Indians, on the north-west frontier of the colony (who are, as stated above, under allegiance to Mexico), also receive payment for wood cut in their territory, and, until the line of the north-west frontier of the colony was recently determined by treaty with Mexico, used to exact similar quit-rents for wood-cutting operations on lands claimed by them within the boundary of British Honduras. These quit-rents were paid as a kind of blackmail, under almost open threats of molestation, which, in consequence of the enduring recollection of former "Indian raids," have still a very disquieting effect on industry in that district; the hired employees of the contractors, especially those of Spanish extraction, being prone to desert their employment at the rumour of any approach of Indians. During the present year (1899), however, the firm principally concerned refused, by desire of the Colonial Government, to continue to pay quit-rents in regard of lands within the now ratified boundary. A temporary scare resulted, but the upshot was that the demand was dropped, and will probably not be renewed.

The financial aspect of the Belize contract system, which illustrates in an important degree the general industrial economy of the community, deserves some detailed notice.

The mercantile and exporting houses are few in number, and each combines a variety of activities within the scope of its business. They own, as already indicated, large, in some cases enormous, areas of the lands of the colony, all the earlier wood-cutting locations, the standard size of which ran to twenty-four square miles, having been turned into freeholds, and having passed, as a rule, into the possession of the mercantile houses. These, therefore, besides being exporters of wood, are the owners of large tracts of land and of considerable stocks of cattle (for forest haulage) and small shipping craft, as well as being general store-keepers and purveyors of supplies of all kinds to the population employed on their lands or by their contractors. But one of the most constant sources of their profits (for prices of wood may fall and trade speculations fail) is said to be in their "banking" operations.

Contractors, as aforesaid, engage with their accustomed consignees to cut and deliver at a certain price. The price for the season is determined by the conclave of merchants in the "Logwood Exchange," and governs the rate to be paid for wood bought from independent sellers bringing in small lots on speculation. Then appears the banking function of the consignee firm. The contractor has come down to Belize for the annual Christmas holiday and hiring season. He has paid off the hands with whose labour he completed his year's operations, and must arrange with fresh gangs for next year. Now it is so that the contractor, even though he may have paid his last year's hands in full, has never command of the money to make the advances demanded by those he must hire for the next year, far less to pay their wages for the whole of the nine months' work

in the bush. So he borrows from his consignee. As a matter of fact he is already, as a rule, very deep in his consignee's debt, and this advance is only an incident in an old-established relation between his family and the firm. There are, or certainly were until quite recently, certain cardinal principles governing the transactions of this kind of banking in Belize. The two most notable are, that interest is at the rate of twelve per cent. per annum, and that five per cent. commission is chargeable on all cash transactions. Thus an advance of one hundred dollars will cost you seventeen dollars for one year. In the days of independent sugar-planting you had to send your crop to your mortgagee to sell for you, as you must do now if you ship any produce of your mortgaged lands, and endure the added charges of commission on sale (five per cent.), and commission for guaranteeing payment (two and a half). Sugar-planting under these conditions could not weather the first crisis of low prices, except on unencumbered estates or those already owned and managed by mercantile firms. But the wood-cutting contractor, who is generally a native, either white or of mixed blood, one of the older settlers' stock, is not extinguished like the more modern sugar-planter. He works out his contract, and if he has a lucky year and pays his way it is so much ready-money in his pocket and so much off the debt on his account. If he has a bad year—if his hands have bolted, or his cattle died, or his barkrafts broken in a flood and let sink their freight of logwood, or if for lack of rain his mahogany trees are stranded in distant creeks or jammed in the rocks at the falls—then it is so much the less off the account. Of course a firm too speculative in advances and contracts may fail; but the rule is that the contractor and his rival employer of labour, the planter (or would-be planter), never is free. No bank from outside the colony intervenes to relieve the situation by advances



on civilised terms; in the first place, because the bank best able to do so prefers to exemplify the saying that "Dog will not eat dog"; and in the second, because all contractors and planters are bound so fast in the net of their present consignees that they could not transfer their custom. This absence of any banking facilities, except under the conditions just set forth, is one among the several combining causes which block the development of the country.

The contractor pays his labourers partly in rations, which, of course, he has to procure from his consignee. This system has, in former times, given rise to great trouble in connection with grievances as to wages paid in "truck," now partially remedied by law and by the establishment of a sound currency. The merchant much preferred that the contractor should make advances or pay wages to his hands in goods procured at his store to finding means for such payments in cash. The competition of contractors for labour, and the insatiable improvidence of the Belize forest-Creole at Christmas time, have caused bidding between employers as to which shall offer the largest advances as well as the largest wage. This has led to the acceptance by labourers of advances from two or three or more employers, and more frequently to labourers bolting after getting all the advances they can, and rehiring in Honduras or Yucatan for the season. The hiring laws make provision for guarding against these practices. All labourers are indentured under agreements entered into before and explained by a magistrate. On the other hand, the agreement protects the labourer against any sharp practice by his employer, requires that his wages be paid him at stated intervals in cash, that his rations shall be sound, that labourers taken out of the colony for employment shall be brought back, and otherwise regulates this interesting and somewhat peculiar contract. The

remedy which used to be advocated *sotto voce* for the malpractice of double engagements by labourers, against which imprisonment seemed ineffectual, was "flogging at the Bridge Head"; but the evil has now been effectually dealt with by the simpler and more obvious expedient of making such advances for a period in excess of one month illegal and irrecoverable by law, thus diminishing the possible inducement to the labourer to brave the legal penalty.

The system of advances to labourers cannot be altogether abandoned, and it was long thought impossible to reduce it to its present moderate limits, because the annual wood-cutting work involves a migration of the whole population employed, to set up new homes for the summer. The forest work is done by selected "gangs," under "captains," of from twenty to fifty men—foremen, book-keepers, stockmen, wood-cutters, carpenters, with their women and children. As they have not only to set up homes for the season, but frequently also to build the houses they will occupy, some provision of clothes and chattels in advance is a real requirement. The site of operations, away up some river, depends on the discoveries of mahogany trees by the "mahogany hunter," or on the proximity of logwood. The logwood is a hawthorn-like tree growing principally where swamps keep the high forest trees from ousting it. The mahogany grows in the densest woodland. The mahogany hunter detects his quarry by climbing the highest tree he can find on some rising ground and inspecting the upper surface of the forest, where, at the change of the leaf, the mahogany trees are easily distinguishable by their yellow or reddish colour. The next problem is to plan out converging tracks to be cut through the dense bush beneath, either to join some old "truck-pass" or to determine the location of a new one. The main "truck-pass" leads down to the "bank," which may be

the chief centre of operations, or may be subsidiary to a larger "barquadier," where the logs are trimmed and squared, and the stores, bush-huts, and cattle-pens of the "work" are situated. The hauling out of mahogany is a tremendous operation: the trees are roughly squared where they fall, and if necessary cut into lengths; they are dragged out by teams of oxen by night, to escape the flies and the heat; either chained on ponderous "trucks," with drum-like wheels, cut solid out of tree trunks, and broad enough to travel over the loamy clay of the forest, or drawn on sledge-frames over rollers or skids (as a rule made of green logs with a somewhat mucilaginous bark) at least as far as the main truck-pass, and sometimes all the way to the bank, whence they float their way to the sea when the rivers are flooded. This torchlight trucking is represented as a striking and even magnificent spectacle. The muscular achievement of the woodmen whilst they are at it is in almost all its branches astonishing, their skill and power as axemen are unsurpassed. Unrivalled as the negro is everywhere in hard labour congenial to him, and splendid as is his muscular development under continuous healthy exercise, the writer has never seen any picture quite to match the stripped, bronze, shining figures of Belize Creoles, squaring logs with the broad-axe at the waterside, the bank strewn with scattered thin slices of pale red wood, and the green of the bush behind. If anything, the shoulders are over-developed; the flat, broad muscles of the back form too marked a triangle.

It is not to be wondered at that this free forest life, in the healthiest imaginable conditions for adults fitted by nature for the climate, with its violent destructive toil, such as the negro takes pride and delight in, its intervals of somnolence and loafing, its hunting of bush-game on Sundays and holidays, its discontinuity from one year to the next, eliminating all germ



of dependence or shadow of slavery, is fascinating to those who pursue it above all others, and utterly denudes other employments of the ablest supply of labour. Unfortunately the continuance of the industries with which it is bound up is increasingly threatened. The failure of commercial firms in the colony, involved by advances to cultivators, or in their own direct operations which unfavourable seasons have rendered fruitless; the check in Yucatan through the effect of the duties now raised by Mexico on stores sent across the frontier for gangs' supplies, and wood brought out, after paying a first royalty to the Indians, progressively overshadow the prospect, and the rallying of prices for wood is less and less to be counted on. There are growing indications that before long, unless the demand for labourers for employment in the Republic of Honduras and elsewhere outside the colony increases, an industrial crisis more severe than such temporary difficulties as have already made themselves felt of recent years may create serious trouble in the colony. For the Belize Creole does not accept with equanimity proposals to reduce his standard wage; on the contrary, he regards it as a form of malignant treason, an oppression and a violence to his liberties, and assembles, very vociferous and threatening, when such manœuvres are reported to be in the wind. The wood from the more accessible parts of the colony has long been cut out; the regrowth of mahogany is a matter of forty or fifty years at the least, that of logwood of fourteen or fifteen. If employment fails there will, if history repeats itself, be preliminary troubles of the nature of disturbances in Belize, followed by the problem of an unemployed population, every man of whom can cut down two trees<sup>1</sup> more easily than he can raise one blade of corn.

<sup>1</sup> This is not merely figurative. The negro and Indian idea of cultivation, universal throughout the West Indies, is always to cut



The Creoles of the Belize forest-works, fed on "rations" of "pork and dough," and supplying themselves, practically altogether, with imported food bought out of their wages, are more helpless to provide for themselves by agricultural industry than even their kindred in those West Indian Islands in which the population has remained dependent in similar fashion on the sugar estates.

The dangers of this situation have long been recognised, and successive governors, under the continuous encouragement of the Colonial Office, have endeavoured to provide against them. The late Sir F. P. Barlee deserves the credit of having taken the most important effectual step in this direction. He established, by contract, regular steam communication with New Orleans, and thereby enabled a market for fruit to be found in the United States, and the important banana industry to be developed. His policy was the object of the most embittered and unscrupulous opposition on the part of the mahogany and logwood interests, who were also interested in preventing competition from the United States in their monopoly of the supply of imports. But although the banana-growing industry has brought money into the colony, and has enabled some independent planting enterprises to be developed, or to survive, notwithstanding the labour difficulty, it has not provided for or attracted the Creoles of African blood. Nor will any one who knows them feel sanguine that this class can be made self-supporting by agriculture on small holdings of land, as the "settlers" are in Jamaica, Grenada, and increasingly in Trinidad. The Indian and the Carib, and the Spaniard of the north or the south, will remain self-supporting populations: the outlook for the African

down and burn virgin forest (if available) as a preliminary to planting food crops. Manuring and rotation are unknown. When the clearing is exhausted another grove is felled.

Creole and for those who have made money by his labour has long appeared increasingly threatening.

The remedy or alleviation now most pressingly advocated is the project of a railway through the colony from Belize into Guatemala, to connect, if possible, with railways in that Republic or in Mexico, and ultimately to be a branch of the great trunk line that is to run from Klondike to Cape Horn. The port of Belize was for long an important entrepot for Central American trade. Goods imported direct from England were there transhipped and distributed by land or sea into Yucatan, Guatemala, Honduras, and the other Central American Republics. This was largely a smuggling trade. The development of steam communication between the United States and these Republics, and the opening and improvement of ports such as Livingston, Port Barrios, and Puerto Cortés, have much diminished the Belize trade in those directions. The Yucatan trade now languishes under the preventive activity of Mexico; the trade up the Belize River Valley into Peten, the northern province of Guatemala, is hampered by the long journey through forest and swamp, and the imperfections of the Belize River Channel. It is believed that if a railway could be constructed the trade of Peten and the adjacent districts, which have now no other outlet except over the mountains to the south to the Rio Dolce (flowing into the Bay of Honduras), would come through Belize, and would increase with this opportunity of outlet. At the same time it is suggested that a railway to the western frontier would enable districts rich in uncut mahogany and logwood to be worked in Guatemala. This project of a railway has been pending for a good many years. Two surveys have been made, one incomplete and somewhat abortive, one thorough and conclusive, at the expense of the Colonial Government. Negotiations are still proceeding with a view to the construction

of a railway by a Company, and the procuring of a concession from the Government of Guatemala for an extension into that territory. It may be hoped that if these schemes should be carried out some settlement for agricultural purposes of the land along the line would result, and that a portion of the nomadic wood-cutting Creoles might gradually be absorbed into such industry. It is unfortunate that the course of the line from Belize for about thirty miles inland must run through swamps and barren "pine ridges," of no value for any kind of settlement. It happens that this tract of country is about the most valueless in the colony; and that all the lands through which the railway would pass are in private ownership. These considerations have suggested an alternative scheme for a line from Stann Creek, a small town south of Belize, to the frontier, which would pass over more difficult country, but by a shorter route through Crown lands and through a valley in which there is already a certain amount of settlement.

Altogether, the future of British Honduras presents itself as a somewhat disquieting problem. Here are more than 7000 square miles of rich soil and splendid forests, with a population of a little over 31,000, and only the coast-line and a corner up in the north in any sense really settled. The colony of British Guiana presents an analogous case, and the two suggest far-leading speculations with regard to the colonising capacity of the British race. British Honduras is comparatively far less of a British settlement to-day than it was about two hundred years ago, when Benbow (subsequently Admiral of the Fleet) was cutting logwood with his partners on the creek that still bears his name. The earlier settlers lived and worked for years themselves at manual labour in this climate, as they did in other West Indian islands before the full development of the slave-trade. They do not seem to be able to do so

now, and they do not seem to be able to train or induce the emancipated negro to work for their profit in agriculture, except under conditions of land tenure which fortunately now survive in a few West Indian islands only. Unless they can solve this problem, it looks as though British Honduras as a country must become more and more the country of the medley of coloured races now co-ordinated by European institutions, showing little promise, either jointly or severally, of ability to maintain such co-ordination themselves.



# BRITISH GUIANA

By EMIL REICH

DOCTOR JURIS

(Author of "*History of Civilisation*," "*Græco-Roman Institutions*,"  
"*History of Hungarian Literature*," "*Atlas of*  
*Modern History*," &c.)

THERE was a time, and not so very long ago either, when nobody in the House of Commons had quite made up his mind whether the colony of "Demerara," as British Guiana was formerly called, was an island or a peninsula. The ignorance of the nature, extent, and importance of that South American colony seemed, indeed, to be as dense as it was well-nigh universal. And yet Guiana, or Guayana, as the Spanish call it, had long been known to British adventurers and merchants. In the days both of Elizabeth and James I., English enterprise had taken notice of the country where, in common belief, the *Dorado*, or gold-country, was laid. Raleigh sailed up the Orinoco in 1595, and again in 1617, and the English had a settlement at Paramaribo in 1652. In spite of these and similar circumstances, British Guiana remained, until recently, a matter of almost supreme indifference to the general public. It is, of course, needless to say that the laborious Germans had long made careful researches into the geography of Guiana, and the works of Alexander von Humboldt, together with the monographs of Wappæus (J. E.) and Meinicke

(C. E.) were, up to the early forties of this century, among the most important contributions to our knowledge of the South American republics in general, and of Guiana in particular.

That indifference, however, has now given way to a lively interest in all that refers to British Guiana, owing to the fact that the boundary-dispute between that colony and the United States of Venezuela has, by the somewhat theatrical yet effective interference of the United States, caused a sensation of no mean intensity. Thanks to the official and unofficial labours rendered necessary for the settlement of that boundary-question, we are now provided with a huge material with reference to the history, both natural, political, and commercial, of British Guiana, taken from all the sources in manuscript or print, obtainable in England, Holland, Spain, at Rome, or in America. The British Government, as well as the American Commission appointed by Mr. Cleveland to investigate the boundary-question, and also the Venezuelan Government, have, of late, poured forth volume after volume containing information of all kinds on Guiana. All told, there are over thirty huge volumes full of minute records of events, historical or legal, and of facts of geography or colonisation. Yet our knowledge of the country itself, especially of its interior, is still very poor, nor do we command a really complete knowledge of its history. It is for this reason that any description of British Guiana has necessarily a tendency to be unsatisfactory.

As to the *physical features* of British Guiana, we may now take it for granted that nobody thinks of that colony as forming either an island or a peninsula. It is well known, that that British settlement is on the continent of South America. Yet, it may not be needless to remark, that the idea of its being an island

arose probably out of the true observation, that Guayana proper, of which British Guiana forms a part, is in a certain sense an island, in that, through the bifurcation of the Orinoco River, the whole of Guayana is bounded by water, namely, by the Atlantic Ocean, and the Amazon and Orinoco rivers. British Guiana proper is bounded in the north by the Atlantic Ocean, in the east by the Corentyne River, in the west by the so-called Schomburgk-line (now somewhat modified), and in the south by Brazil, whatever that may mean, this southern boundary being as yet unsettled.

The physical nature of British Guiana offers, roughly speaking, four different types. First is the sea-board, which, in sharp and beneficial contrast to that of Dutch and French Guiana, is not swampy, or not everywhere, but low, flat, alluvial land twenty miles in width, admitting of ready cultivation of the soil. It is on that portion of the colony where, in Dutch times as well as under English management, the extensive cane-sugar plantations were established. There, too, are the two largest towns of the colony, Georgetown (the Dutch Stabrock) and new Amsterdam, or Berbice. The second type is the immediate basin of the Essequibo River, which traverses the colony from due south to north. This mighty river is the natural connection between the colony and the valley of the Amazon, which, in course of time, is bound to become one of the chief arteries of commercial life in South America. Hence the immense, if prospective, importance of that river, which has so far given rise to two fairly prosperous towns, Bartica and Quatata. The third type is the *Savanna* type, or elevated tableland, averaging 1200 to 1500 feet in height, well-watered and treeless, where immense herds of cattle and horses can be sustained. The fourth is the mountainous portion of the colony. The marvellous

sandstone group of mountains reach their highest ascertained summit in the mountain of Roraima, a tremendous tableland of rock, measuring roughly four miles by eight, and over 8600 feet above sea-level, the last 1500 feet of which are almost sheer precipice, unbroken save where a few plants have found a precarious foothold in the crevices between the shining slabs of rock. The general appearance of the mountain and of the neighbouring table-topped masses is like a collection of huge impregnable fortresses.

In addition to these types of land-formation there are large rivers, of which the Berbice and the Demerara are navigable to a very considerable distance from the sea-board (the former up to Cumaka, the latter to Kanampoo); so likewise the Waini and Barima rivers in the north-west district of the colony; and although this serious advantage cannot be predicated of the Cuyuni, Mazaruni, and Rupununi rivers (all affluents of the Essequibo), yet their possible use as lines of communication with the entire interior renders them just as important for the colony as they are picturesque features thereof. The shortest description of British Guiana would be impossible without mention being made of the majestic Kaietur Fall on the Potaro River, where the stream, some 150 yards wide, precipitates itself nearly 800 feet perpendicularly from a cliff.

The physical structure of the colony is, as may be seen from the above, sufficiently diversified to augur well for the climate of the country. In fact, the climate is not unpleasant, for although warm it is not subject to sudden changes. The range of the thermometer is small, except on the savannas, the variation being from  $72^{\circ}$  to  $87^{\circ}$  (Fahrenheit). The north-east trade-wind prevails on the coast lands during the dry seasons, of which there are two—February to March, and August



to December. The other months of the year constitute the rainy seasons. The annual rainfall varies from 70 to 130 inches. The country is not subject to hurricanes, nor do disastrous earthquakes ever devastate the towns and settlements.

On the whole British Guiana is, by nature and by its very situation, fairly endowed with possibilities of a considerable growth in commerce and industry. This will become more manifest still by a short consideration of the mineral wealth of the country.

The Commissioner of Mines, in his Annual Report for 1892-93, stated: "There is not the slightest doubt that diamonds are to be found in the different rivers of the colony, and it is possible a dry mine may be found in the neighbourhood. The samples I have seen have been perfect glassy octohedron stones of the best quality, and I consider that the colony has a possible future in store as a diamond-producing country."

Be this as it may, it is certain that very considerable quantities of gold have been found in British Guiana. In the year 1863, quartz-mining was started by an association of persons calling themselves the "British Guiana Gold Company," who commenced to mine gold-bearing quartz at a place named Wariri, on the right bank of the river Cuyuni. This undertaking was, however, soon abandoned. No extensive mining was done until 1884, when 250 ounces of gold were obtained. The most fortunate man at that period was a black native of Cayenne (French Guiana), named Jules Caman, who sold his placer to a company for £6250. Ever since an increased activity has been devoted to gold-mining, as may be seen from the following official table:—

Years.	Gold.		
	Ozs.	d.	g.
1884 . . . .	250	0	0
1885 . . . .	939	0	0
1886 . . . .	6,518	1	12
1887 . . . .	10,986	14	0
1888-89 . . . .	20,216	1	8
1889-90 . . . .	32,332	16	5
1890-91 . . . .	66,864	4	21
1891-92 . . . .	110,555	12	5
1892-93 . . . .	134,124	7	23
1893-94 . . . .	138,527	16	14
1894, April 1 to Dec. 31	110,432	4	16
Total . . . .	631,746	19	8

The mining country is densely covered with forests of all kinds of hardwood, with softer woods intermingled. Most of the trees are as straight as arrows. Placer-claims are being actively worked in at least fifteen different parts of the colony. There are now some 20,000 men engaged in gold-mining. The value of the gold produced in 1893-94 was \$2,494,000, or about £500,000. The most notable gold-mining districts are between the Barima and Barama rivers; on the right bank of the Cuyuni River; on the Puruni River, not far from its termination; on the Caburi River; and on the Essequibo River, at the junction of that river with the Potaro River.

In addition to cane sugar, which is highly prized for its exceptional quality, and the exports of which in 1896-97 were valued at £1,098,398, there is also rum—which is, however, inferior to that of Jamaica—molasses, timber, and coffee. Of late, as is well known, the colony has, together with the other British colonies in the West Indies, suffered very severely at the hands of the rival beet-root sugar factories in Europe, and her Majesty's Government has finally consented to lend the sugar-producing colonists a helping hand. How

far this governmental succour may prop up the declining sugar industry of the colony remains still to be seen.

Having thus given, if in faint outline only, a description of the physical nature of the territory of the colony, we shall now turn our attention to its *human element*. The population of British Guiana was, in 1891, 278,328, and is now estimated at about 283,000. A striking feature of that population is its cosmopolitan character. All the continents have furnished large elements, and there may be found numerous Hindoos, or rather coolies, together with Chinese (especially at Bartica, where they are small shopkeepers), native Indians, and Europeans, more particularly Englishmen, Scotchmen, Portuguese, and the irrepressible Teutons. There is also a large influx of negroes from the West Indian Islands, especially Barbados and Trinidad. The native Indians are relatively few, and mere remnants of the once powerful and numerous tribes of the Caribs, Arawâks, and Waraus. Many of them are still wholly uncivilised, although both Catholic and Protestant missionaries have for many generations back tried to spread amongst them Christianity and civilisation. They live in the interior, close to the banks of the great rivers, and keep up a fair trade in timber, which they cut in the huge forests of the central and southern districts. Their languages and folk-lore have been made an extensive study of, and still offer a field for students of the American aboriginal Indian. These Indians are, generally speaking, less uncivilised than their neighbours, the roaming tribes in Brazilian Guayana.

The coolies are imported from India, and government pays part of the expense of their importation. They generally prove a good-natured and steady sort of labourer. The Portuguese are disseminated all through the colony, and form the chief stock of the white population in the North-Western District.

In former times, when most of the cultivated land was distributed between a very limited number of great land-owners, the little man had poor chances of advancing his fortune. Now, however, the Colonial Government deliberately encourages the growth of a class of small land-owners; and thus on the numerous islands in the mouth of the Essequibo, and in other places, a sort of well-to-do middle class is rising.

Most of the white men are in the towns, of which Georgetown, the capital, at the mouth of the Demerara River, on the sea coast, is the most important. Like most cities in America, it is laid out in streets cutting one another in rectangular lines. It is a beautiful town, with fine buildings, each surrounded by gardens full of tropical vegetation. Water Street and Main Street are in no way inferior to some of the finest streets in European towns. The museum of the town is truly magnificent, and the park, with its gorgeous lake adorned by the queen of flowers, the *Victoria Regia*, is an enchanting sight. The latest improvements in lighting and locomotion, drainage, and all other sanitary measures, may be found; and although at present there is only one railway between Georgetown and Mahaica, several other lines are being actively planned. The daily life of the white population of Georgetown is built up on the principle, which has been so effectively recommended by many a great statesman—“*Pas trop de zèle!*” Accordingly they take life easily; and most of the dignified efforts at work made by them are at an end by four o’clock in the afternoon, not having commenced, it may be remarked, before eleven o’clock A.M. It is commonly rumoured that there is in that pretty town some strong partiality to what is there called *swizzle*, or a sort of “cocktail.” We give that on the authority of the traveller Versehnur.

The *political constitution* of the colony is, from the



theoretical point of view, a strange mixture of a Crown colony, a dependency, and an autonomous colony proper. This is due to the fact that the colony was formerly in the hands of the Dutch, whose system of colonisation was, and still is, very different from that of the English. When in 1803, or rather 1814, England got final possession of the colony, the conservative policy always practised by British statesmen prompted acquiescence in the then prevailing system of government, and accordingly the law of the colony, as that of all other British colonies which were formerly Dutch possessions, is still Dutch-Roman law, or the law of ancient Rome as interpreted by the great Dutch jurists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. At the head of the administration is the Governor, appointed by the Queen, and he holds office for a period of five or six years. He and the *Court of Policy* form the government. The latter consists of fifteen members—seven official, and eight elected by the direct vote of the people. The Governor has two votes, and a veto on any measure at any stage. The Court of Policy acts also as a legislative council, excepting for matters of taxation, which are legislated upon by the so-called *Combined Court*, consisting of the Court of Policy and of six *Financial Representatives* elected directly by the people. For the rest of the functions of a government, such as executive and administrative measures of various kinds, there is the *Executive Council*, consisting of the Governor, five official and three unofficial members nominated by the Crown. The chief official members of that council are, besides the Governor, the Government Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Auditor-General (which latter office is now filled by N. Darnell Davis, Esq., C.M.G., the genial and learned late Comptroller of Customs of the colony), and the Immigration Agent-General. An elective member of the Court of Policy must be the owner of

eighty acres of land in the colony, of which forty at least must be under cultivation, or of immovable property, value £1562, 10s., or of house and land of an annual rental of £250. The qualification for the general electors, who number only about 2756, is, for the *country*—ownership of three acres of land under cultivation, or tenancy of six acres do.; tenancy of house, rental £40 a year; income of £100 a year; payment £4, 3s. 4d. taxes. For the *towns*—ownership of house, value £104, 3s. 4d.; tenancy of house, rental £25 a year; income and taxes as for country. The general electors also choose the Financial Representatives, who must have a similar qualification, or an annual income of £300.

The criminal law is almost identical with that of England, and is administered in a similar way, except that trials are held at the instance of the Attorney-General, and there is no grand jury. The large penitentiary near Bartica is occupied by convicts other than Englishmen.

The history of the colony goes back to the sixteenth century, at which period the Spaniards sent various expeditions into the country watered by the Orinoco and Amazon rivers. Perhaps the most pertinent of the documents proving Spanish occupation of the territory to which British Guiana geographically belongs, is the formal act, by which Domingo de Vera in 1593 took possession of the province of Guiana for Spain. But already in 1553 a Spanish explorer went up the Essequibo with four canoes. The real settlers and colonisers of British Guiana were, however, the Dutch. After various attempts to occupy the territory, the Dutch, by the chartering of the Dutch West Indian Company (June 3, 1621), made a determined effort, crowned with success, at colonising the sea-board and part of the interior between the rivers Surinam and Orinoco. The charter of the Company

was several times renewed (in 1700, 1730, 1760, 1762); but in 1791 the Company was dissolved, the States-General of the United Provinces (or "Holland") assuming control over the colony. During the long period of the Company's rule, the history of the colony was mainly one of peaceful development. Occasionally there was some friction, either with some of the tribes—although the powerful Caribs were generally in friendly relations with the Dutch—or with the neighbouring Spanish. However, neither of these occurrences was of any great importance. By the treaty of Munster (1648), Spain had formally recognised not only the independence of (the formerly Spanish) Holland, but also the possession of such colonies as Holland, or rather the West Indian Company, then possessed in Guayana. Yet the colony was involved in many a dangerous conflict with the English, Spanish, or French, according to the varying policy of the mother country, in the great wars of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In April 1796, Great Britain and the Batavian Republic (as Holland was then called) being at war, an English fleet appeared at Demerara, and took possession of that river and of the Essequibo. The British occupation continued from 1796 to 1802. By the treaty of Amiens, however (1802), this colony was returned to the Batavian Republic. The said treaty was quickly shorn of its effects, and in September 1803 the English again took possession of Essequibo. This time they remained in occupation until, by the Treaty of London, August 13, 1814, the Netherlands finally ceded to Great Britain "the establishments of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice." Under British government much has been done for the betterment of the country, its commerce and industry, and the North-Western District has been opened up to civilisation.

It remains for us to add a few words on the now

famous boundary-dispute between British Guiana and Venezuela. This great affair owes its importance not only to the startling estrangement which it suddenly produced between the governments of the United States and Great Britain, both of whom are now anxious to bury the past dissension, but also, and more especially, on account of the vital influence that dispute possessed for the colony itself.

The Venezuelans started their claims on all the territory west of the Essequibo River over fifty years ago. The British Government was loth to enter into the intricate details of the documents, maps, and deeds of all sorts, by which the claims of either Venezuela or British Guiana might be supported, and repeatedly offered boundary-lines compromising the rival claims, in a spirit of fairness and practicability. However, the Venezuelans would accept none of those offers, and finally broke off their diplomatic relations with England. It is here where we must mention the great merit of Mr. C. Alexander Harris of the Colonial Office, who—then practically the only one—had made a thorough study of the entire question; and coming to the conclusion, as he did, that England's case was far more favourable and far more strongly founded than had been thought of before, urged upon the British Government to give up the policy of gratuitous concessions, and to insist on the merits of her case. He succeeded in convincing the authorities, and the entire affair was thus shifted from its former place. Now, the Venezuelans found means of engaging the interest of the United States Government in the matter, and finally, in December 1895, President Cleveland sent a threatening message to Lord Salisbury, to the effect that a further abstention of the British Government from submitting the Venezuelan boundary question to arbitration would be considered as an unfriendly act by the United States Government. In other words,



the United States threatened with war, unless England submitted the question to arbitration. Everybody will still remember the immense sensation caused by that message. The British Government very soon published various Blue-books, filled with documents and maps, proving the legitimacy of the British claims; the Venezuelans responded by the publication of similar official statements, and the Commission appointed by the United States Government did similarly, submitting three stout volumes and an elaborate atlas, containing a mass of Dutch documents and other relevant matter. When all this had been done, the British Government thought it proper to accept arbitration, under certain restrictive conditions, and thus, on February 2, 1897, a treaty of arbitration was signed between the United States of Venezuela and her Majesty. By that treaty four "jurists" were appointed as members of the arbitral tribunal, namely, the Lord Chief-Justice, and the Honourable Sir Richard Henn Collins, on the part of England; and the Honourable Melville Weston Fuller, Chief-Justice of the United States of America, and the Honourable David Josiah Brewer, a Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States of America, on the part of Venezuela. The fifth jurist and president of the tribunal was appointed by the preceding four, in the person of His Excellency Professor F. de Martens, of St. Petersburg, Russia. The arbitral tribunal met at Paris in May 1899, the chief legal counsellor of England being Sir Richard Webster, Q.C., Attorney-General.

The award was given on October 3, 1899, at Paris, and runs as follows:—

"The undersigned by these presents give and publish our decision, determining and judging, touching and concerning the questions which have been submitted to us by the said arbitration, and in conformity with the said arbitration. By these presents we decide, declare,

and pronounce definitively, that the line of frontier between the colony of British Guiana and the United States of Venezuela is the following:—

“Starting from the coast at Point Playa, the line of frontier shall follow a straight line as far as the confluence of the river Barima with the river Maruima, and then the thalweg of the latter, to its source. From that point it shall proceed to the confluence of the river Haiowa with the Amakuru. Thence it shall follow the thalweg of the Amakuru to its source in the Imataka. Thence towards the south-west, it shall follow the highest ridge of the Imataka Mountains, to the highest point of the said Imataka Mountains, opposite the source of the Barima, and the principal chain of the Imataka Mountains. Thence turning to the south-west up to the source of the Acarabisi, the frontier shall follow the thalweg of the Acarabisi to the Cuyuni, then the northern bank of the river Cuyuni towards the west, as far as its confluence with the Vanamu, then the thalweg of the Wenamu to its most westerly source. Thence it shall take a straight line to the summit of Mount Roraima, and from there, to the source of the Cotinga, it shall follow the thalweg of that river to its confluence with the Takutu. Thence it shall pursue a straight line to the most westerly point of the Akarai Mountains, then the crest of the Akarai Mountains to the source of the Corentin, and afterwards the course of the river Cutari.

“It is agreed that the line of delimitation laid down by this Tribunal, reserves and in no way prejudices questions actually existing, or which may arise to be settled between the Government of Great Britain and the Republic of Brazil, or between the latter Republic and the United States of Venezuela.

“In fixing the above delimitation, the arbitrators consider and decide that in time of peace the rivers Amakuru and Barima will be open to the navigation of

the merchant shipping of all nations, due reserve being made as regards fair regulations, and the payment of light dues and other like imposts, on condition that the dues levied by the Republic of Venezuela, and in the colony of British Guiana, on the passage of ships along the parts of those rivers owned respectively by them, shall be imposed according to the same tariff on Venezuelan and English vessels—these tariffs not to exceed those of all other countries—on condition also that neither the Republic of Venezuela, nor the colony of British Guiana shall impose any customs duty on goods carried in the vessels, ships, or boats passing through these rivers, such customs duties being levied only on goods landed on Venezuelan territory or that of Great Britain respectively.”

This award clearly shows that the contention of the Venezuelans was infinitely less founded on law and fact than had been the claims of Great Britain. It, moreover, puts the message of President Cleveland in its true light as a piece of gratuitous offence to this country; and finally, it will undoubtedly ensure the future progress of the colony of British Guiana, which has for many years been seriously impaired by the uncertainty of its boundaries.

## THE FALKLAND ISLANDS

By W. E. L.

THE Falkland Islands are the southernmost inhabited dependency of Great Britain, lying in the South Atlantic between  $51^{\circ}$  and  $53^{\circ}$  south latitude and between  $57^{\circ}$  and  $62^{\circ}$  west longitude. They are 480 miles north-east of Cape Horn, and about 1000 miles due south of Monte Video.

The credit of their discovery rests with John Davis, the Arctic explorer, who gave his name to the Strait between Greenland and the mainland of North America. In the year 1591 he, with Thomas Cavenish, attempted to find a new route to Asia by the Strait of Magellan. Differences arising, however, between the two leaders, who had little in common, one being an explorer, the other more or less a free-booter, they parted company off the coast of Patagonia. Davis being driven out of his course by stormy weather found himself, on August 14, 1592, amongst a group of unknown islands, "lying fifty leagues or better from the east shore and northerly from the Strait."

Two years later, in 1594, Richard Hawkins sailed round the islands, and to honour his queen and also himself, called them "Hawkins' Maiden Land." Sebald de Veert, the Dutch navigator, sighting them between the years 1598 to 1600, gave them the name of Sebald's Isles; from which they have often been called the Sebaldines.



In 1690 Captain Strong named the passage between the two large islands Falkland Channel, the name Falkland afterwards being given to the islands themselves.

In 1748 the British Government wishing to acquire a station in the South Atlantic, was about to send out an expedition to explore and report on the islands; but desisted owing to the remonstrance of the Government of Spain, who did not like the idea of a British station so near their South American colonies.

The first European settlement in the islands was a colony of French families, comprising some who left Canada on the British occupation, and others from France. These under the leadership of Bougainville, in 1764, established themselves on Berkeley Sound, in East Falkland, and founded the settlement of Port Louis. In 1766, however, they were bought out by the Spaniards, who renamed the settlement Port Solidad.

Previously to this, in 1764, the British Government had sent out Captain Byron to take possession of West Falkland for his Majesty King George the Third. In January 1765 he landed at an inlet on the west coast of the island, and called it Port Egmont, after the then First Lord of the Admiralty—the Earl of Egmont. During the next year a blockhouse was built, and a small garrison placed there.

In June 1770, however, we were compelled to evacuate the island by a force sent by the Governor of Buenos Ayres. Diplomatic negotiations ensuing, in January 1771 Spain agreed to restore Port Egmont, on the condition that such restitution should not affect the question of prior right of sovereignty over the islands. This was agreed to by the British Government, but in May 1774 the settlement was abandoned, a plate being left bearing a declaration that the islands were British property.

After fifty years of neglect the Republic of Buenos Ayres took possession of the islands in 1820, granting East Falkland to Don Louis Vernet in 1826, who formed a settlement at Port Louis.

In 1831, trouble arising with the United States through Vernet having seized some of their vessels, and a United States force being sent to destroy his settlement, the British Government resolved to revive their claims. On the 20th of December 1832, therefore, a man-of-war reached Port Egmont, the fort was repaired, and the British flag hoisted. In East Falkland a small detachment of soldiers from Buenos Ayres surrendered to the British commander, and in spite of protests from their Government the islands passed finally under British sovereignty.

The group consists of two large islands—the East Falkland, with an area of 3000 square miles, and the West Falkland, with an area of 2300 square miles—and over one hundred small islands, with an aggregate area of 1000 square miles; the two large islands being divided from each other by Falkland Sound, a passage about 45 miles long, and in width varying from  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 18 miles.

The coast-line lies low, is much indented, affording numerous good harbours, and generally has a fringe of small islets. East Falkland is nearly bisected by two arms of the sea—Choiseul Sound on the east and Grantham Sound on the west, the isthmus between being only four to five miles wide,

Though there is a quantity of low-lying bog-land, especially in the East Falkland, the land surface generally is wild and rugged, in some parts even mountainous, Mount Usborne, 2245 feet, being the highest point in East Falkland, and Mount Adam, in West Falkland, having an altitude of 2300 feet.

The islands possess one natural curiosity in the “stone rivers,” long lines of stony *débris* that, without

the aid of water or other motive power, gradually descend to lower levels.

The climate on the whole resembles that of the north-west of Scotland. It is never excessively cold, the thermometer seldom falling below  $30^{\circ}$ , but cold and high winds prevail, especially in the daytime in the summer months, and generally from the west. The summer range of temperature is  $40^{\circ}$  to  $65^{\circ}$ , the winter range  $30^{\circ}$  to  $50^{\circ}$ . The annual rainfall is 28.80 inches, the winters being misty and rainy; the summer atmosphere, however, is remarkably dry.

The soil is not favourable to the cultivation of fruit or vegetables, being too damp and cold; celery, scurvy-grass and sorrel, however, are found wild. The tussock-grass, which grows in clumps to a height of six or seven feet and forms a fattening food for cattle, has now disappeared from the larger islands, but still abounds on the smaller ones. No trees, and but few shrubs exist. In November and December the ground is covered by a variety of sweet-scented flowers.

The only indigenous animal is a species of fox; sheep, cattle, and horses, however, have been introduced. Penguins and other sea-fowl are plentiful, and fish, especially cod, are abundant.

The population of the islands was, in 1898, 1753 persons, nearly all of whom were of European extraction, and a great proportion Scotch. For the same year the number of births was 64, that is at the rate of 36 per thousand, and the number of deaths 27, the rate being 15.4 per thousand; this, however, is abnormally high owing to the inclusion of ten lives lost in a boating accident. Many of the colonists' sons emigrate to Patagonia, the existing population in the islands being more than enough to supply the local demand for labour.

Stanley (formerly called Port William), the only town and seat of government, with a population of

789 persons, is situated in the north-east of East Falkland. It possesses a large, safe, and accessible harbour, three miles long by one-third of a mile wide, and is a port of registry, having in December 1896, five vessels of a total tonnage of 236 tons. It took the name of Stanley from Lord Derby, the Secretary of State in 1844, when the seat of government was transferred to it from Port Louis on Berkeley Sound. The former capital was found to be too exposed. The harbour is of great value as a coaling and refitting station for vessels going round Cape Horn. During 1898, thirty-three steam-ships and thirteen sailing ships entered, having a total tonnage of 62,131 tons: this year is remarkable for being the first for many years that no ship put in to Port Stanley for repair or in distress.

The town consists mostly of square whitewashed grey-slatted buildings, the general aspect resembling many of the towns in the Western Highlands of Scotland. The Government House looks like an Orkney or Shetland manse. The most imposing building in the town is the barracks, generally occupied by a company of marines. A small Episcopal church stands in the midst of the town.

Attached to many of the houses are small green-houses, gay with fuchsias and pelargoniums, forming a pleasing contrast to the general barrenness of the place.

In the town are two mixed government schools, one for infants and one for older children. The former has 75 pupils and an average attendance of 50; the latter 81 pupils and an average attendance of 56. There is also a Roman Catholic school, with 61 pupils and an average attendance of 51; and a Baptist school; both receiving State aid.

In West Falkland the government supports two itinerant schoolmasters, who travel from house to house,



staying from two or three days to two or three weeks, at a place according to the number of children to be taught. Thus education, which is made compulsory by local ordinance, is brought within the reach of all, however isolated their homes may be.

Travelling in the islands is not very pleasant, owing to the entire absence of roads, except in the immediate vicinity of the town of Stanley. The soft, boggy nature of much of the ground makes the cost of making roads prohibitive.

Communication between the Falklands and England can be made either by the German Kosmos Company's steamers, or by the Pacific Steamship Company's boats to Punta Arenas, and thence to Stanley by a Kosmos steamer. The Kosmos Company's boats call at Stanley once every three weeks on their outward voyage to Callao, and also once every three weeks on their return voyage, the time taken from London to Stanley being thirty days.

The mails are brought out alternately by the Kosmos boats, which bring parcels as well, and by the Pacific Steamship Company, which conveys letters only to Punta Arenas, whence they come on to Stanley by a Kosmos boat. The Kosmos Company receive an annual payment from the local Government of £2500. The mails are distributed from Stanley by a contract schooner at an annual cost of £450.

The Post Office revenue amounted in 1898 to £2109, and the expenditure to £3995, leaving a deficit of £1886. The number of letters carried was 28,000, papers and books 34,000, parcels 5400. In consequence of the adoption of Imperial penny postage, and a reduced parcel rate, the figures are sure to be largely exceeded in the present year. The nearest telegraph station in communication with Europe is Monte Video, 1000 miles away; the rate from Monte Video to the United Kingdom being 5s. 9d. a word.

The trade of the islands is chiefly in the hands of the Falkland Isles Company, which was formed in 1851 to acquire the rights and property of a Monte Video merchant, Lafone by name, who in 1846 received from the Government a grant of the southern portion of East Falkland, and certain rights over the wild cattle, then very plentiful on the islands. The wild cattle were descendants of those introduced by the French settlers.

The company is now in a very prosperous condition, and has for several years paid 15 per cent. on a capital of £110,000. Besides extensive sheep-farming on their own freehold and on 97,000 acres purchased from the Government, they are engaged in importing goods and repairing ships, which often come to the islands in distress.

At Darwin (named after the great naturalist, who stayed here during his voyage on the *Beagle*), their head-quarters, they maintain a school of twenty-four pupils, an itinerant teacher visiting thirty-four pupils, a medical doctor, and a Church of England clergyman.

The only local industry of any importance is sheep-farming. In 1896 there were 761,768 sheep, chiefly Cheviots and Southdowns, in the islands; and in 1898, 4,801,222 lbs. of wool, representing a value of £92,206; 35,000 sheepskins, value £4375; and 150,000 lbs. of tallow, value £1250, were exported; besides 25,811 live sheep, value £6686. A trade in frozen meat with Great Britain is being developed. Other exports are hides, horns, hoofs, bones, &c.

The total value of the exports in 1898 was £106,984; all this, with the exception of £3284 which went to the Argentine Republic, coming to the United Kingdom.

The imports for the same year, consisting of textiles, alcohol, hardware, ships' stores and general supplies, were of the value of £72,987—£64,992 coming from

the United Kingdom, £5171 from Chili, £2119 from Uruguay, and £705 from Germany.

The prices of most articles imported are from 25 per cent. to 50 per cent. higher than in England. In Stanley, bread is 9d. per 4 lb. loaf, beef 5d. per lb., mutton 2½d. per lb., and vegetables 2d. per lb. House rents are from £1 to £4 a month; labourers are paid 8d. per hour; domestic servants £2 a month; shepherds £5 to £6 a month.

The price of land in 1890 was 3s. per acre; in 1895, over 4s. was bid for government land, and a half-acre plot in the outskirts of Stanley fetched £74.

Empty houses are difficult to obtain, but there are several good though small hotels.

The currency is British. There are no local banks, but a Government Savings-Bank was opened in 1888, and the amount deposited has increased year by year, in 1898 there being £43,172.

The local law is the law of England, supplemented by local ordinances.

Since 1843 the islands have been a Crown Colony with a Governor, who is aided by an Executive and a Legislative Council. The latter consists of the Governor, the Colonial Secretary, and two unofficial members appointed by royal warrant, for the term of five years. The Governor also acts as chief-justice, and the Colonial Secretary as a police magistrate.

During 1898 six persons were imprisoned for short terms, the local jail being able to accommodate six prisoners at once, giving each a separate cell. During the same year the number of offences reported to the police was 46; of these 43 led to summary convictions, the remaining 3 cases being acquitted by the Inferior Courts, the Supreme Court having no cases.

The islands possess a Volunteer Rifle Company, consisting of 6 officers, 4 non-commissioned officers, and 75 men; armed with Martini-Henry rifles, and

two nine-pounder field guns. The corps receives a capitation grant from local revenue of £2 per annum for each efficient, the money being expended on new uniforms, &c., the amount received in 1897 being £90.

The total revenue of the colony from customs, port-dues, licenses, fees, post office, rents, interest on investments, and miscellaneous receipts amounted to £13,039 in 1898, the expenditure being £14,278, an excess over the receipts of £1239. £5000 of the revenue is received from land leased to farmers for grazing purposes.

South Georgia, a dependency of the Falkland Islands, is an uninhabited and perpetually ice-bound island, lying 1200 miles to the south-east. It was discovered by Captain Cook in 1775, who landed in three places and took possession for King George, naming it "the Isle of Georgia." He describes it thus: "The wild rocks raise their lofty summits till they lose themselves in the clouds, the valleys lay covered with perpetual snows, not a tree or a shrub is to be seen." Captain Weddell visited it in 1823, and mentioned a coarse strong-bladed grass as being almost the only form of vegetation. A German expedition to observe the transit of Venus visited it in 1882-83.



# APPENDIX

## CANADA

CANADA was visited in 1497 by John Cabot and his son Sebastian, who sailed under orders of Henry VII. of England. In 1525 Verrazano of Florence took possession of the country in the name of Francis I., King of France, and called it New France. Jacques Cartier, a seaman of St. Malo, in 1534-35 explored Newfoundland and Labrador and ascended the St. Lawrence as far as the site of the city of Montreal; the first settlement being made by him in 1541. Early in the seventeenth century the Sieur de Monta obtained a charter from Henry IV. granting him a monopoly of the fur-trade of "La Nouvelle France." Under his auspices Samuel Champlain explored Canada and first attempted to found a colony in Acadia (Nova Scotia), which was abandoned. In 1608 Champlain founded Quebec, the first settlement of importance.

In 1629 Quebec was taken by Sir David Kirk, Champlain himself being taken prisoner, but it was restored in 1632. A society called "Les cent Associés" was formed by Cardinal Richelieu to promote the colonisation of Canada, and Montreal was founded in 1642. In 1663 Louis XIV. raised Canada to the status of a Crown Colony under the control of a Governor and Council.

General Wolfe took Quebec in 1759, and in 1763 the whole territory of Canada was ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris. A Governor-General was appointed and the country was to be administered "according to the law of England." From 1763 to 1774 Canada was governed by military authority, during which time there was a constant flow of immigrants from England. In consequence of the petition by the English for a more popular form of government and by the French Canadians for the restoration of their ancient laws, the autho-

rity was vested in a governing council of from seventeen to twenty-three members. By the Quebec Act of 1774 the province was enlarged, the territory including Western Canada and part of the Hudson Bay Territories. French law known as the Custom of Paris was substituted for English civil law and the Roman Catholic Church confirmed in possession of its ancient revenues and made the established Church of the Colony.

In 1783, at the conclusion of war with the United States, a large number (some 40,000) loyalists crossed into Canada. In 1791 Parliament passed the Constitutional Act which divided Canada into two provinces, Upper and Lower Canada, each with a Legislature consisting of two Chambers, the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. The members of the Upper Houses were nominated by the Crown and those of the Lower Houses elected by owners or tenants of a certain amount of real property. The members of the Executive Council were still nominated by the Crown.

In 1841 the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were united. By an Act which came into force July 1, 1867, by Royal proclamation of May 22, 1867, the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia were formed into one Dominion. The Governor-General was also appointed on April 1, 1870, Governor of Rupert's Land.

Rupert's Land was admitted into the Dominion, July 15, 1870. Manitoba was formed out of Rupert's Land and made a Province, July 15, 1870, and also admitted into the Federation.

British Columbia was incorporated July 20, 1871.

Prince Edward Island was incorporated July 1, 1871.

All the other British possessions in North America except Newfoundland were included in the Dominion on September 1, 1880.

In 1886 the Canadian Pacific Railway was completed.

Education is left to the control of the Provincial Legislatures.

Free education is now general and is compulsory in Ontario from the age of seven to thirteen, in Nova Scotia from seven to twelve, in Manitoba from five to sixteen, in Prince Edward Island from five to sixteen.

*Constitution.*—The Executive Government is vested in the Crown and is exercised by a Governor-General appointed by

the Queen, assisted by a Privy Council chosen and summoned by himself. The Cabinet is a committee of the Privy Council formed of the principal members of the Government. The Seat of Government is Ottawa in Ontario.

The supreme legislative power is vested in a Parliament consisting of the Queen, a Senate, and a House of Commons. The Senate consists of 81 members nominated for life by the Governor-General, 24 of whom belong to Ontario, 24 to Quebec, and the remainder to the other provinces. A senator must be not under thirty years of age, and reside in the province, and possess property of the value of \$4000.

The House of Commons consists of 213 members, 92 representing Ontario, 65 Quebec, 20 Nova Scotia, 14 New Brunswick, 7 Manitoba, 6 British Columbia, 5 Prince Edward Island, and 4 The Territories. The proportional number for each province is regulated at each decennial census, and based on Quebec receiving 65. Members of the Senate receive \$1000 per annum, and members of the House of Commons \$10 a day during session, with a maximum of \$1000. Parliament lasts five years. Election is by ballot with a franchise almost equal to manhood suffrage. The session of Parliament is usually from February to May.

Each province has a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by Governor-General and holding office during pleasure, but not removable within five years of appointment, except for cause assigned. He receives a salary fixed and provided by the Dominion Parliament, and is assisted by an Executive Council usually composed of chief provincial officials who possess the confidence of the Provincial Assembly. Each province has a Legislative Assembly, and in Quebec and Nova Scotia there is also a Legislative Council forming a second chamber.

The Territory not comprised within any province such as N.E. Territory, the Arctic Islands and the Island of Anticosti, is administered by the Minister of the Interior at Ottawa.

The Dominion Parliament has exclusive legislative power in all matters except those specifically delegated by the constitution to the Provincial Legislature.

The powers of the Provincial Legislatures are confined to certain specified subjects of which the chief is the alteration of their own constitution, direct taxation within the province, &c.

The Judges are appointed by the Governor-General.

Bills passed by the Provincial Legislatures require the assent of the Lieutenant-Governor and may be disallowed within a year by the Governor-General. Those passed by the Dominion Parliament require the assent of the Governor-General and may be disallowed within two years by the Queen.

*Local Government.*—In all the provinces local self-government has been developed to its fullest extent.

The Constitutions comprise :—

1. Townships or rural districts of eight or ten square miles with a population of 3000 to 6000 administered by a reeve and four councillors.

2. Villages having a population of 750 are governed by the township.

3. Towns with a population of 2000 are governed by a mayor, and three councillors are elected for each ward if there are less than five wards, and two councillors if more than five.

The Reeves, deputy-Reeves, mayors, and councillors are all elected annually by the ratepayers.

Above these stands the county municipality, consisting of Reeves and deputy-Reeves of the townships, villages, and towns within the county, one of whom presides and is called the "Warden of the County."

Cities of 10,000 are governed by a municipal body consisting of a mayor and three aldermen for each ward.

ONTARIO and QUEBEC (Old Canada). Quebec, the first settlement in Canada, was founded by the French in 1608. It was taken by the English in 1629 and restored in 1632. It was captured by Wolfe in 1759, and Canada became British in 1763.

In 1791 it was divided into two provinces, Upper Canada (now Ontario) and Lower Canada (now Quebec), with a separate constitution for each. The form of government for each province was similar. There was a Legislative Council appointed by the Crown and a House of Assembly elected by the inhabitants. The Lower Province was under a Governor while the Upper was under a Lieutenant-Governor; both Houses of Assembly thus created were in constant conflict with the executive Government. In 1841 the two provinces were united and municipal institutions were established in Canada. The union was not a great success, and in 1867 these two provinces were with New Brunswick and Nova Scotia federated.



Each province now enjoys representative Government under a Lieutenant-Governor, advised by the Cabinet Ministers. There is an elective Legislative Assembly. Ontario has ninety-two members, Quebec has sixty-five, who are elected for four years by manhood suffrage. Members in Ontario are paid \$6 per day for thirty days, or a maximum of \$800. Quebec has also a Legislative Council or Upper House of twenty-four members who hold their seats for life. They are nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. Members are paid \$6 per day while the session lasts and their travelling expenses.

In Ontario the central control of Education is vested in the Minister of Education. Primary education is free and compulsory.

In Quebec, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, assisted by a Council of thirty-five members, is vested with the central control of Education. The Council is divided into Committees for the management of Roman Catholic and Protestant Schools respectively. The schools are maintained partly by local taxation and fees, and partly by grants from the provincial government.

NEW BRUNSWICK was called by the French New France. At the Peace of 1763 it was with the rest of Canada ceded to Great Britain and annexed to Nova Scotia until 1785, when it was made a separate Colony. It was first colonised by British subjects in 1764, and in 1783 by disbanded troops and United Empire Loyalists from New England. It is represented in the Canadian Senate by ten members and by fourteen members in the House of Commons.

There is a Legislative Assembly of forty-six members. The Legislative Council was abolished in 1891. Members receive \$300 per session and travelling expenses.

Education is free between the ages of five and twenty, and is in the hands of a Board of School Trustees.

NOVA SCOTIA. Probably discovered by the Cabots in 1497. In 1598 the Marquis de la Roche landed convicts on Sable Island, but many died, and the rest were taken back to France.

In 1604 the De Monts and Champlain founded Port Royal and named the country Acadia (which included Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and part of the present State of Maine). The

Colony was destroyed by the English in 1614. In 1621 Sir Wm. Alexander obtained from James I. a patent to plant colonies in Nova Scotia. Sir D. Kirk took Port Royal, but in 1632, by the Treaty of St. Germans, Nova Scotia passed into the hands of France. In 1710 Port Royal was captured and renamed Annapolis. Nova Scotia was finally ceded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. In 1763 it included New Brunswick, Cape Breton (first colonised by France in 1712, and taken by the British in 1758), and Prince Edward Island. In 1785 New Brunswick and Cape Breton were constituted separate colonies. In 1820 Cape Breton was reunited to Nova Scotia. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were confederated with Canada in 1867.

*Constitution.*—Nova Scotia is represented in the Dominion parliament by twelve members in the Senate and twenty-one in the House of Commons.

Local government is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor advised by an Executive Council of nine members (three of whom are departmental Heads) responsible to the Legislature, which consists of a Legislative Council of twenty-one members appointed by the Governor for life, and a House of Assembly of thirty-eight representatives elected every four years. Members are paid \$500—sessional indemnity.

Education is compulsory between the ages of seven to twelve. The local management of the schools is vested in a Board of Trustees chosen by the ratepayers of the section or district.

MANITOBA, formerly known as the Red River Settlement of the Hudson Bay Company, was erected into a Province with representative institutions in 1870, when it joined the Dominion. It sends four members to the Dominion Senate and seven to the House of Commons. It has a Legislative Assembly of forty members elected by manhood suffrage for four years. The Legislative Council was abolished in 1876. Members of the Legislative Assembly receive \$600 per annum and travelling expenses. Education is free to all between ages of five and twenty-one years.

BRITISH COLUMBIA. At the end of last century the North-West Company established trading posts in British Columbia.

In 1856 gold was discovered, and in this year British Columbia was made into a Crown Colony.

In 1866 the colonies of Vancouver's Island and British

Columbia were united, and in 1871 British Columbia joined the Dominion of Canada. Vancouver's Island was discovered in 1762; it was leased to the Hudson Bay Company in 1843, and made a Crown Colony in 1849. It is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor and an Assembly of thirty-three members on the system of executive administration. The Assembly is elected for four years by every male who has resided there twelve months. Members receive \$600 per session and travelling expenses.

There are 25,000 Indians and 7000 Chinese in the Island.

Education is in the hands of an Executive Council. It is free and non-sectarian. Morality is taught, but no religious dogma or creed. School districts are formed wherever there are twenty children between the ages of six and sixteen.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND. Discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497. Was first settled by the French. Taken by Great Britain in 1758. Annexed to Nova Scotia in 1763. It was constituted a separate colony in 1770. In 1873 it was admitted into the confederation.

*Constitution.*—Representative Government was established in 1851. There is a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Governor-General, an Executive Council of nine members, and a Legislative Assembly of thirty elected members. It sends four members to the Dominion Senate, and five to the House of Commons.

NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES. Early in the seventeenth century Grosseliez explored the country round Hudson Bay, and failing to interest France in his undertaking laid his scheme before Prince Rupert. The prince and his friends founded the Hudson Bay Company, and a charter was obtained. Much desultory fighting took place between the French and English, but in 1713, at the Treaty of Utrecht, the British were confirmed in their possession of the country.

Towards the end of the century, the North-West Territories Company became a rival to the Hudson Bay Company, and the contest was carried on with much bitterness and loss of life, until a union of the two Companies was effected in 1820. The monopoly enjoyed by the Hudson Bay Company, which was exclusively a trading Company, expired in 1859. In 1811 Lord Selkirk obtained from them a grant of land on the Red River, and founded a Scotch colony there, but in 1835

the Company bought back the settlement. In 1868 the Canadian Government purchased for £300,000 the Company's rights in the North-West Territory, with the reservation of a twentieth part of all lands set up for settlement within fifty years.

In 1870 Prince Rupert's Land was admitted into the Dominion, and Manitoba was created out of this territory. The French half-breeds under Louis Riel rebelled, but order was soon restored.

The district of Keewatin, with a population of 5000 Indians and whites, was in 1876 placed under the Government of the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba. Intoxicants are absolutely prohibited in this district.

In 1876 the North-West Territories were created into a Government. These are governed by a Lieutenant-Governor subject to instructions given by order of Council at Ottawa, or by the Secretary of State for Canada.

In 1894 the Territories included Alberta, Assiniboia, and Saskatchewan, and were organised under a local ordinance; twenty-nine members form the Legislative Assembly, from whom four are chosen to aid and advise the Lieutenant-Governor. In 1897 an Executive has been authorised to assume office.

Education is provided by a Council of Public Instruction, consisting of four persons appointed by Lieutenant-Governor in Council. School districts can be organised in areas not exceeding twenty-five square miles. The Territories are now divided into the following districts: Keewatin, Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, Athabasca, Ungava, Franklin, Yukon, and Mackenzie.

POPULATION OF CANADA IN 1891 was 4,833,239. Of this total the French Canadians number 1,415,000 (of whom 1,186,346 are in Quebec). The British-born Canadians, 476,456; the Indians, 121,638; the Chinese, 9129 (nearly all in British Columbia).

NEWFOUNDLAND was discovered by John Cabot in 1497. It was early visited by the Portuguese, Spanish, and the French for its fisheries. Sir Humphrey Gilbert and others made unsuccessful attempts to colonise it.

In 1662 the French established themselves at Placentia. At the Peace of Utrecht British sovereignty was acknow-



ledged by France, but certain rights were granted to French fishermen. The extent of these rights has ever since been a subject of dispute between the nations, but has never been submitted to judicial consideration, while their existence has in great measure retarded the development of the island. The currency is that of Canada, but much trade is done by barter.

Newfoundland has had a Legislature since 1832, but it was the last of the North American Colonies to which responsible government was conceded, which was established in 1855. The government is administered by a governor aided by a responsible Executive Council over which the governor presides. There is a Legislative Council not exceeding fifteen, and House of Assembly of thirty-six members elected by ballot under manhood suffrage. There is a property qualification for members. Members of Council receive \$120 per session, and the members of the Assembly \$300, but \$200 for those living at St. John's.

St. John's is governed by a Municipal Council consisting of seven members, two appointed by the general government and five elected by city ratepayers.

*Education.*—The schools are denominational and fees are charged; the central authority is vested in three superintendents, one belonging to each of the Roman Catholic, Anglican, and Methodist bodies. There is a grant-in-aid for technical and higher education.

Labrador from Cape Chidley to Blanc Sablon, including the basin of the Hamilton, is included in the Colony of Newfoundland. The remainder of Labrador forms part of Quebec and North-West Territories. Labrador was early visited by the Norsemen, and rediscovered by Cabot in 1497. The Basques and Breton fishermen paid frequent visits. In 1763 the Atlantic coast was annexed to Newfoundland, but from 1773 to 1809 it was temporarily reannexed to Quebec. It had a judicial court in 1824 and 1863. A collector of customs, who is a J.P., now visits Labrador every summer.

## WEST INDIES

In 1492 the West Indies were discovered by Columbus, who so named them from his conviction that he had discovered the east side of the extremity of Asia; the land first touched was San Salvador (Watling Island), one of the Bahamas. Columbus sent home specimens of gold and other metals, and about 500 West Indian prisoners, whom he suggested might be sold as slaves at Seville. This was the beginning of the West Indian slave-trade. In about fifty years the original inhabitants being nearly exterminated, negroes from Africa were introduced, and that commenced the negro slave-trade. Nearly all the European nations joined in the scramble for the West Indian Islands: the Spaniards came in 1492, the French in 1610, the English in 1620, the Dutch in 1632, and the Danes in 1671.

BAHAMAS. San Salvador was visited by Columbus, and was the first land discovered by him on his voyage in 1492. A few years later all the Carib inhabitants were transported to Cuba to work in the mines there, and the islands were abandoned. In 1578 Queen Elizabeth included the Bahamas in a charter she gave to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, but he did not visit them. In 1612 they were nominally attached to Virginia. Settlers came from the Bermudas to Eleuthera in 1646 and 1666. In 1670 Charles II. granted the islands to a proprietary body, and in 1671 Captain Johnson Wentworth was appointed the first governor. New Providence, then a nest of pirates, in 1680 and 1682 was laid waste by the Spaniards. In 1703 the French and Spaniards combined to annihilate the settlement. After this it was simply a rendezvous for pirates, who were finally extirpated by the English in 1718. New colonists were introduced, including a number of German families from the Palatinate, and a small council instituted. In 1781 the Bahamas were surrendered to the Spaniards, but they were shortly afterwards reannexed by Great Britain, which was confirmed in their possession by the treaty of Versailles in 1783. During the American war a number of loyalist families emigrated there from Georgia and Carolina, who appear to have introduced cotton cultivation, which has continued a staple industry of the colony.

*Constitution.*—The Executive Government is conducted by the Governor, aided by an Executive Council of nine members. The legislative authority resides in the Governor and a Legislative Council of nine members, nominated by the Crown, and a representative Assembly of twenty-nine members.

*Education.*—There is a Government system of elementary education. The central control is in a Board of Education nominated by the Governor. Local committees partly elected exercise local supervision. There are forty-two unsectarian Government schools, thirty-one Church of England schools, and thirty-two private schools.

BARBADOS. Said to have been discovered by the Portuguese, who, finding it uninhabited and rude in appearance, named it the isle Los Barbados from the number of bearded fig-trees found there. It was taken possession of by the English in 1605. In 1625 Sir William Courteen, a London merchant, under the protection of the Earl of Marlborough, who held a grant of the island, landed with thirty persons, built James's (or Hole) Town, and appointed Captain William Deane their governor. In 1627 the Earl of Carlisle obtained from Charles I. a grant of all the Caribbee Islands. This grant was opposed by Lord Marlborough, and the Earl of Carlisle agreed to settle an annuity of £300 on the Earl of Marlborough as compensation. Wolferstone, a native of Bermuda, was appointed governor in 1628. Sixty-four more settlers arrived at Carlisle Bay and built Bridgetown. Many of the Royalists after the downfall of Charles found shelter at Barbados. Lord Carlisle conveyed the island to Lord Willoughby, who became its governor, but he was banished by the Commonwealth. In 1662 Lord Willoughby renewed his claims, and to satisfy which, a duty of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on all exports was imposed. This his heirs received until 1838, when it was abolished by Act of Parliament. A peculiar feature in the history of the island was the way in which it was utilised as a place of banishment and temporary bondage for those disaffected to the existing Government during the Stuart troubles, and for prisoners taken in arms. A large number of Irish were deported there by Cromwell. This system had its baser side in an accompanying illicit traffic in kidnapping, of which Bristol was one of the centres. Barbados has always remained in the possession of Great Britain.

*Constitution.*—The colony possesses representative institu-

tions, but not responsible Government. The Government includes the Governor, aided by a small executive committee, and the Legislature consists of a Legislative Council of nine men appointed by the Crown, and a House of Assembly of twenty-four members, elected yearly on the basis of a moderate franchise. Next to the House of Commons and the Bermudian House of Assembly, this is the most ancient legislative body now existing in the empire. The Governor of Barbados was for many years the Governor-in-chief of the Windward Islands, consisting of Barbados, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago. In 1885 it was made a distinct Government.

*Education.*—There is a Government system of elementary education, with an authorised expenditure of £15,000. The central administration is vested in a Board appointed by the Government, and the local control is conducted by the clergyman of the district, assisted by the school committee. In higher education it is ahead of all the West Indies, possessing Harrison's College, of the type of the great English Public Schools, and Codrington College, affiliated to Durham University, the one collegiate institution in this part of the world.

JAMAICA was discovered by Columbus in 1494. He called it St. Jago after the patron saint of Spain, but it retains its old native name (Xaymaca—well watered). It was first settled by Esquivel in 1509 under the direction of Diego, the son of Columbus, while he was Governor of Hispaniola. It remained Spanish for 161 years, when it was taken in 1655 by Penn and Venables, who were sent out by Cromwell with the idea of seizing Hispaniola, but failing in that attempt managed to secure Jamaica. In 1660 a regular civil Government was established, and Charles II. appointed General Edward D'Oyley Commander-in-Chief, with an Elective Council chosen by the colonists, and free institutions were adopted. In 1670 the claim of England to Jamaica was recognised by the Treaty of Madrid. In 1807, when the slave-trade was abolished, there were 323,827 slaves in Jamaica, and it received in 1833 £6,161,927 of the £20,000,000 granted by the Imperial Government in compensation to the slave-owners. The original constitution granted by Charles II. in 1662 existed until 1866. In that year, owing to various disturbances in the colony arising out of labour troubles, the old representative institutions were suspended, and in 1866 and 1869 a nominated



legislative chamber established. This continued until further friction between colonial and imperial interests led to the reintroduction, within limits, of an elective element. The Legislative Council in 1895 included the Governor (with only a casting vote) and five *ex officio* members—the Senior Military Officer, Colonial Secretary, Attorney-General, Director of Public Works, and Collector-General, and such other persons not *ex officio* who may be appointed by her Majesty, together with fourteen elected members representing each parish of the island.

Education is left to private enterprise, but there are Government grants-in-aid, and a system of inspection, while training colleges have been established for both male and female teachers.

**TURKS and CAICOS.** Grand Turk is said to have been (with many other islands) the scene of the first discoveries of Columbus, but the group remained uninhabited till the end of the seventeenth century. It then became annually visited by salt-rakers from the Bermudas for the pursuit of this industry. In 1710, however, they were expelled by the Spaniards, who resented their intrusion into West Indian waters. In 1799 these islands were included by England in the colony of Bahamas. In 1848 they were placed under the Governor of Jamaica, owing to the dissatisfaction expressed by the colonists with the former arrangement.

*Constitution.*—The legislature consists of a Legislative Board comprising the Commissioner and Judge, and not less than two or more than four other persons appointed by the Governor of Jamaica.

*Education.*—The schools are entirely unsectarian and free. A compulsory clause was passed in 1883, but has not been proclaimed.

**THE WINDWARD ISLANDS**, so called through being exposed to the NE. trade wind which prevails in the West Indies, are a southern group of the West Indian Islands, including St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Barbados, the Grenadines, and Grenada. Tobago and Trinidad belong geographically rather to the continent of South America. Barbados and Trinidad till recently belonged to the group, but are now entirely separate colonies. The remaining three British Colonies are under the governor of the Windward Isles, who usually resides at St. George's, Grenada. As early as 1764

there was one governor of the "Southern Caribbee Islands" of Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago. In 1833 St. Vincent was included, together with Barbados, Grenada, and Tobago, in one government. In 1838 St. Lucia was also included. In 1885 Barbados was omitted, while in 1889 Tobago was united to Trinidad. Each island retains its own institutions, and when the Governor is absent, is presided over by a resident administrator who is also Colonial Secretary. There is no common legislature, nor common laws, revenue, or tariff. There is, however, a common Court of Appeal, consisting of the judges of the three colonies and of Barbados, a common audit, and a common lunatic asylum.

GRENADA. Grenada was discovered by Columbus in 1498 and named by him Conception; it was then inhabited by Caribs. In 1650 Du Parquet, Governor of Martinique, purchased Grenada from a French company, and he sold it to the Comte de Cerrillac in 1657 for 30,000 crowns, but through the tyranny of the Governor the proprietors rose against him, tried, and executed him. In 1674 the island was annexed to France, and the proprietors were compensated. In 1762 it surrendered to Great Britain, and was formally ceded by treaty in 1763. Retaken by France in 1779, it was in 1783 again restored to Great Britain by the Treaty of Versailles. In 1795-96 there was a rebellion, when the Lieutenant-Governor and forty-seven British subjects were massacred. But in 1796 Sir Ralph Abercrombie suppressed the rising, and the ringleaders were executed. Part of the Grenadines are attached to Grenada.

*Constitution.*—This originally consisted of a Legislative Council and House of Assembly, of seventeen men, of whom eight were elected by the people and nine nominated by the Crown; also a representative Committee of five, including three nominated and two elected members from the House of Assembly. These members received each a salary of \$100 a year. In 1876 it provided for its own extinction, and there is now simply a Legislative Council of six official members and the Governor, and seven unofficial members nominated by the Crown. Grenada is the headquarters of the Windward Islands, and possesses in St. George's, on the south-west coast, a good harbour and coaling station. There are Government elementary and aided schools, the latter managed by ministers of religion.

There is a Board of Education nominated by the Governor, half of the members being Roman Catholics. Fees are charged in all schools.

ST. LUCIA when discovered by Columbus in 1502 was inhabited by Caribs, who continued in possession until 1635, when it was granted by the king of France to MM. de l'Olive and du Plessis. In 1639 the English formed their first settlement; but they were shortly afterwards murdered or driven from the island by the Caribs. In 1642 the king of France sold it to the French West India Company, who in 1650 resold it to MM. Horel and du Parguet. It was in 1663 taken by the English, and restored to France at the Peace of Breda in 1667. In 1674 it was reannexed to the Crown of France and made a dependency of Martinique. From 1718 there was constant war between the English and French for its possession until 1803, when it capitulated to General Greenfield, and has since remained under British rule.

The government is now conducted by an administrator, subordinate to the Governor of the Windward Isles, aided by an Executive Council of ten, consisting equally of official and nominated unofficial members. There are Government and aided schools similar to those in Grenada. The civil law has been codified by Sir G. W. Des Vœux and Mr. James Armstrong, C.M.G., and the statute law consolidated by Dr. J. W. Carrington.

ST. VINCENT. At its discovery by Columbus in 1498, it was in the hands of the Caribs, and continued so until 1627, when the king of England granted it to the Earl of Carlisle. In 1660 it was declared neutral. In 1672 it was granted to Lord Willoughby. No steps, however, were taken to form a settlement, and the French and English agreed to leave it to the Caribs. In 1722 George I. granted it to the Duke of Montague, but in 1748 it was again declared neutral. In 1762 it was taken by General Monckton, and by Treaty of Paris ceded to Great Britain. In 1779 it was surrendered once more to the French, but restored in 1783 to Great Britain. In consequence of a rebellion of the Caribs, they were transported in 1797 to Island of Ruatan in the Bay of Honduras. In 1846 a large number of Portuguese labourers were introduced. Its administration consists in an Executive Council of five, including the administrator, and the Legisla-

tive Council numbers four official and four nominated unofficial members.

*Education.*—There are two Government, twenty Anglican, nineteen Wesleyan, and four Roman Catholic schools.

THE LEEWARD ISLANDS, so called in contrast to the Windward Islands, being less exposed to the north-east trade winds, the English Leewards comprising the Presidency of Antigua with its dependencies, Barbuda and Redonda, Montserrat, St. Kitts, and Nevis—including Anguilla, Dominica and the Virgin Isles—were constituted a single Federal Colony in 1871. The Islands were discovered by Columbus on his second voyage in the year 1493, and became a British possession in the seventeenth century. They have been from the first, with the exception of Dominica, politically associated. For some time the French also were amicably associated with the English in a joint work of settlement. They were all colonised from St. Kitts as a centre, and all included in the grants made by Charles I. to the Earl of Carlisle, and possessed a common Legislature as far back as the reign of William and Mary. The General Legislature met for the last time in 1798, when it passed a State Amelioration Act, which was allowed—a Catholic Emancipation Act, and an Act repealing the duty on exports of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for the benefit of the English Exchequer—both of which were disallowed. An attempt was unsuccessfully made in 1837 by Sir Wm. Colebrook to revive the General Legislature. The colonies of St. Kitts and Nevis with Anguilla and their respective dependencies were united into one Presidency in 1882. All the Leeward Islands, with the exception of Antigua, were captured by the French at the beginning of the French Revolution. They were recaptured by Rodney in 1783, and after various attempts made to regain them remained safe in English keeping.

*Constitution.*—The Leeward Islands form a quasi-federal Government with one Executive and one Legislative Council under one Governor for the four Presidencies. The Legislative Council consists of ten elected and ten nominated members. The former are four from Antigua, two from Dominica, four from St. Kitts and Nevis, who must all be and continue to be members of their respective island councils. The other ten are appointed by the Queen, being five official and five non-official members. The Council meets once a year.



The expenses of the federal establishment are voted by the Council and apportioned among the Presidencies: Antigua  $\frac{5}{16}$ , Dominica  $\frac{3}{16}$ , Montserrat  $\frac{1}{16}$ , St. Kitts and Nevis  $\frac{6}{16}$ , and the Virgin Islands  $\frac{1}{16}$ .

ANTIGUA was discovered by Columbus in 1493, who named it after a church in Seville, called Santa Maria la Antigua; it was first inhabited by a few English from St. Kitts in 1632. In 1663 Charles II. made a grant of the island to Lord Willoughby, who increased the number of colonists. There was an interval of French occupation, but it was declared British by the Treaty of Breda in 1667.

Constitution consists of a Governor aided by an Executive Council appointed by the Crown, and a Legislative Council of twenty-four, consisting of four *ex officio* members, eight members nominated by the Crown, and twelve elective. The Governor appoints the President and Vice-President of the Legislative Council. The islands of Barbuda and Redonda are dependencies of Antigua.

ST. CHRISTOPHER and NEVIS. This Presidency consists of St. Kitts (Christopher), Nevis, and Anguilla, with their several dependencies. There is one Executive Council appointed by the Crown. The Legislative Council consists of ten official and ten nominated unofficial members, over which the Governor or the administrator presides.

St. Kitts, native name of which is Liamurga or "fertile island," was the first settled of the Leeward group. In 1625, under the patronage of the Earl of Carlisle, Thomas Werner effected a permanent settlement. On the same day Desnambue and a few Frenchmen reached the island. In the face of the common enemy, the Caribs, they settled peacefully side by side, the French at each end, the English in the middle. In 1629 they were almost destroyed by the Spaniards, but soon recovered from this depredation. The war with France brought war between the settlers, and the English capitulated in 1666. The English part of the island was restored at the Peace of Breda in 1667. It was not until the Treaty of Utrecht that it became entirely English. In 1866 the two Houses were replaced by a single Legislative Assembly, partly nominated and partly elected, but this Assembly abrogated itself for a Legislative Council of five unofficial and five official members, all nominated by the Crown.

Nevis, discovered by Columbus in 1498; colonised by the English in 1628. In 1866 the constitution was simplified in the same manner as had recently been adopted in St. Kitts and Antigua, and a single chamber was established.

ANGUILLA. This island is within the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of the Leeward Islands. The "Dogs" and neighbouring islands are dependencies of Anguilla.

DOMINICA was discovered by Columbus on Sunday, November 3, 1493 (hence its name). It was included in the grant to the Earl of Carlisle by Charles I. in 1627, but several attempts to bring the island under English subjection proved abortive. In 1748 it was stipulated between the French and English to be neutral territory. Afterwards it was captured by the English in 1756, and by the Treaty of Paris, 1763, assigned to Great Britain. The French inhabitants were secured in their possessions on taking the oath of allegiance to England. Dominica then formed one of a general government with Grenada, the Grenadines, St. Vincent, and Tobago. In 1771 the island was constituted a separate government. In 1778 the French retook the island. In 1783 it was again restored to England. In 1795 it was invaded by the French Republican, Victor Hugues, but without success. In 1805 the capital was invested by the French under La Grange with a considerable force and burnt, but as they were unable to reduce it completely, upon being paid £12,000, they quitted the island. Since then it has remained in English hands. In 1833 it was with Antigua and other Leeward Islands formed into a general federal Government.

The Local Government is in the hands of an administrator, aided by an Executive Council of ten. The Legislative Assembly consists of seven nominated and seven elected members, and exerts a certain control over local finance.

MONTSERRAT. Discovered by Columbus in 1493, and named after the mountain where the monastery of Ignatius Loyola is situated, near Barcelona. Was colonised by the English in 1632; taken by the French in 1664; and restored to England in 1668. Capitulated to the French in 1782, but was again restored to England in 1784.

*Constitution.*—It possessed a Legislative Council and Assembly as early as 1668, which continued until 1867. It has now a Legislative Council of some six members appointed by the Crown.

VIRGIN ISLANDS. Discovered by Columbus, 1493. These islands as far as they are British became so in 1666. There are thirty-two belonging to Great Britain.

A Civil Government and Council of Justice were established here in 1773. In 1867, by the constitution as amended, the Legislative Council was constituted to consist of a Colonial Secretary and Colonial Treasurer, and three unofficial members nominated by the administrator of the Government, who presides. There is also an Executive Council.

TRINIDAD and TOBAGO. The colony now includes Tobago (formerly one of the Windward Islands), which was amalgamated with Trinidad in 1889.

Trinidad. Discovered by Columbus in 1498, and taken possession of by Spain, but no Governor was appointed until 1532. Visited by Sir Robert Dudley and Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, who burnt the town of St. Joseph. It was included in the Earl of Montgomery's grant in 1628. In 1640 it was raided by the Dutch, and by the French in 1677 and 1690. In 1783 foreigners of all nations were invited to settle in Trinidad, the sole condition being they must profess the Roman Catholic religion. This brought a large influx of French to the island. In 1797 it was taken by Great Britain, and it was finally ceded in 1802 by the Treaty of Amiens, and has since remained a British dependency.

*Government.*—The government is vested in a Governor, aided by an Executive Council of seven members, and a Legislative Council consisting of nine official and eleven members, all appointed by the Crown.

*Education.*—Schools are of two kinds; secular, supported entirely by Government, and denominational, aided by Government, the latter being mainly Roman Catholic. Higher education is provided by the Queen's Royal College and the affiliated Roman Catholic College of the Immaculate Conception, both largely supported from public funds.

Tobago. Discovered by Columbus in 1498, at which time it appears to have been uninhabited. The British flag was first planted here in 1580. In 1625, an attempt was made by some English colonists from Barbados to effect a settlement, but they were soon driven out by Carib Indians. It was originally included in the grant to the Earl of Pembroke and Montgomery in 1628, but no results followed, and the next

attempt at colonisation in 1632 was made by the Dutch through some three hundred Zeelanders from Flushing, who christened the island New Walcheren, and who also were shortly compelled to abandon it by Indians from Trinidad and the mainland, aided by Spaniards. In 1642 James, Duke of Courland (a Baltic province), instigated probably by Dutch merchants, sent out two ship-loads of colonists from Courland who successfully established themselves in the north of the island. A second party of Dutch colonists, under Adrian and Cornelius Lampsis, landed in the South in 1654, and formed a settlement there. Eventually these made themselves masters of Tobago, and in order to secure their possession, especially against the Dutch West India Company, the brothers Lampsis applied to Louis XIV. of France for a title to their island, who in 1662 created Cornelius Lampsis Baron of Tobago. An attempt was made by the Duke of Courland to revive his claim in 1664, through the offices of King Charles II. of England, who gave him a grant of Tobago under British protection. The Dutch resisted these, and other attempts made later by the French, to destroy their independence with varying success; and after existing alternately under English, Dutch, and French masters, Tobago was eventually ceded to England in perpetuity by the Treaty of Peace in 1763. It was then organised on the traditional English lines. During the later struggle with France the colony passed into its hands in 1781 and surrendered by treaty in 1783, and was held till 1793, when it was retaken by the British and constituted a separate colony as before with representative institutions. Restored to France in 1802 by the peace of Amiens, it became English again in the following year, and was finally incorporated in the British Empire by the peace of Paris in 1814.

*Constitution.*—In 1876, Tobago was converted into a Crown Colony, and in 1889 was severed from the Windward Islands and attached to Trinidad. It is represented in the Trinidad Legislative Council by one official and one unofficial member; and is ruled by a Commission assisted by a Financial Board of two nominated and three elected members. The judges of the Supreme Court in Trinidad are also the judges of the Supreme Court of Tobago.

*Education.*—Education is in the hands of the various religious denominations in the island, assisted by Government grants-in-aid.



BERMUDA. These islands were discovered in 1515 by a Spaniard, Juan Bermudez, from whom they take their best-known name. In 1609, Sir George Somers, who was conveying a party of colonists to Virginia, was wrecked here. In the following year Sir George died at Bermuda, and the group was named after him "the Somers' Islands." Captain Mathew Somers took home such a good report of the islands that the Virginia Company obtained a charter in 1612 from James I. to include them within their dominions. Shortly after they were bought for £2000 by the "Company of the City of London for the plantation of the Somers' Islands." This company ruled the islands till the year 1684, when their charter was abolished, and they passed under the government of the Crown. The Bermudas have always remained in English hands; and the various political and religious strifes of the Mother Country appears to have found their reflection in a minor way among the colonists. They at first refused to recognise the Commonwealth, but were promptly blockaded and their submission obtained. During the War of Independence in America their sympathies appear to have been divided between the contending parties. The real importance of the Bermudas in later years arises from their constituting one of the ocean strongholds of Great Britain, a dockyard and arsenal having been established there during this century.

Representative government was introduced into the colony in 1620, but since the charter of the Bermudian Company in London was annulled in 1684 the governors have been appointed by the Crown. The governor is always a military officer of high rank in command of the garrison, assisted by a Privy Council of four official and two unofficial members. The Legislative Council consists of nine members, three official and six unofficial. The House of Assembly contains thirty-six elected members. The members of the Privy Council and of the Legislature are paid 8s. for each day's attendance. There are two town corporations and nine village vestries.

*Education.*—There is a Board of Education, consisting of the Governor and eight members appointed by the executive. The local management is in the hands of each parish vestry. All the schools are private, charging fees. Attendance is compulsory. Of these schools twenty-three are State aided.

BRITISH GUIANA. Includes the settlement of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. This territory was first partially settled by the Dutch West India Company in 1580. It was held both by Holland and France, and finally surrendered to Great Britain in 1814, when it was stipulated that the Dutch laws and institutions should be maintained. In 1624 a settlement was made on the river Berbice by Van Peere, a Flushing merchant, under license from the Dutch Company. The first English attempt at settlement was made by Captain Leigh on the Ozapoek in 1604. Soon after he died of fever. Other attempts were made in 1613 and 1627 by Robert Harcourt. All these eventually failed. In 1663 Lord Willoughby founded a settlement on the Surinam, which was captured by the Dutch in 1667, and ceded to them at the peace of Breda in exchange for New York. The Dutch held on to the three colonies with more or less success against the French, Portuguese, and British, until the time of the French Revolution, when it was taken by Great Britain in 1796. The territory was restored to the Dutch in 1802, but retaken by Great Britain in 1803, and finally ceded in 1814. The constitution of the colony of Berbice dates from the year 1732; under it the Governor was nominated by the directors of the mercantile body called the Berbice Association, assisted by a council of six. This was dissolved by order of the king in 1826, and all appointments were vested in the Governor.

The Court of Policy for Demerara was established in 1773. In 1789 that of Essequibo was merged in it, with the seat of Government at Stabroek (now Georgetown); these institutions date from the old Dutch times. Up to 1891 the constitution of British Guiana consisted of a Governor, a Court of Policy, and a Combined Court. The functions of an Executive and Legislative Council and House of Assembly were performed by the Governor and Court of Policy, except as regards taxation and finance, which were dealt with by the Combined Court, which includes six elected Financial representatives. In 1892 an Act came into force giving the Combined Court the power to impose taxes, and the discussion of the items on the annual estimates prepared by the Governor. The Court of Policy consists of the Governor, with seven official and eight elected members. The Governor has the right of veto, and the fran-

chise has a property qualification. The Roman Dutch law for civil cases, and the English criminal law are in force.

A State-aided system of elementary Education was established in 1876. Schools are denominational, except the Established school. The central administration is vested in the Inspector of Schools, and the local control conducted by managers, who are usually ministers of religion.

BRITISH HONDURAS. Coast discovered in 1502 by Columbus, and an early settlement attempted by buccaneers about 1638. An earlier settlement was made on two small islands on the Mosquito coast by a chartered company, with the Earl of Warwick as chairman and John Pryn as treasurer. The Mosquito Indians appear from the first to have maintained friendly relations with the English; and their king some time after placed himself under English protection. In 1739 the native king resigned his country to Great Britain; and forts were built in 1742 at the Island of Ruatan. By the Treaty of Paris in 1763 it was agreed to abandon the settlement, and the forts were dismantled. The settlers however remained. In 1798 the Spaniards attempted to establish their authority over the country, but the logwood-cutters, whose industry formed a prominent element in the settlement, and with whom the former had repeatedly interfered, completely defeated this attempt in a determined fight at St. George's Cay. Henceforward the colony became in reality a truly British possession, no longer in any degree existing by foreign sufferance. The rights and independence of the Mosquitos have been steadily recognised by the British Government and their territory preserved from aggression by their neighbours. The first settlers managed their own affairs from 1638 to 1786. Persons were annually elected to act as magistrates at public meetings held for the purpose. These magistrates discharged all executive and judicial functions. Resolutions were passed at public meetings, and these formed the laws binding upon the community. In 1756 these customs were formally recognised by the king's government. These customs were codified and published and became known as "Burnaby's Laws." In 1786 a superintendent was appointed by the Home government, but during the years 1790-97 elected magistrates ruled. From 1797 to 1862 superintendents were regularly appointed. An Executive Council was established in 1839 to

assist the superintendent, and in 1853 a Legislative Assembly was formally constituted consisting of eighteen elected and three nominated members. The settlement was declared a colony in 1862, and a Lieutenant-Governor appointed subordinate to the Governor of Jamaica. In 1870 the Legislative Assembly was abolished and a Legislative Council substituted, consisting of five official and not less than four unofficial members with the Lieutenant-Governor. The Executive Council now consist of four official and three unofficial members. In 1884 the colony was made independent of Jamaica and the office of governor instituted.

*Education.*—There are forty-nine schools in the colony, all but one being denominational, and assisted by Government aid.

FALKLAND ISLANDS. The Falklands were discovered by Davis in 1592, and were visited by Hawkins in 1594. In 1763 they were taken possession of by France, and Bougainville planted a colony of Acadians at Port Louis in East Falkland. Bougainville was bought out by the Spaniards in 1764; who here as elsewhere showed their jealousy of rival colonisers. In 1765 Capain Byron took possession of West Falkland, and left a small garrison, which was driven out by the Spaniards in 1770. It was restored in 1771, but abandoned in 1774. In 1820 the Republic of Buenos Ayres established a settlement in the islands which was destroyed by the Americans in 1831. In 1833 they were taken possession of by the British Government. Until 1842 they were in charge of naval officers, when a civic administration was formed. The colony received regular grants-in-aid from 1841 to 1880, and for mail service down to 1884-5. Since that date it has been self-supporting. The Falkland Islands Company was formed in 1851 to take over the district in East Falkland from Mr. Lafone of Monte Video, now called Lafonia. It has also purchased 97,128 acres from the Government.

The government is administered by a Governor, aided by an Executive and Legislative Council. The Legislative Council is composed of Governor, Judge, Colonial Secretary and Colonial Surgeon, and two unofficial members appointed by warrant under the Royal Sign Manual and Signet for five years.

The Falkland Islands Company have a school as well as a travelling schoolmaster; there are also two Government travelling schoolmasters.



## APPENDIX

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South Georgia is a dependency of the Falkland Islands, and was discovered by Antony la Roche in 1675. It was explored and taken possession of by Captain Cook in 1775. It is uninhabited. The German expedition for observing the transit of Venus landed here in August 1882 and remained until September 1883.

## FRENCH WEST INDIES—

	Sq. miles.	Population.
Guiana . . . . .	46,850	22,710
Guadeloup and Dependencies . . . . .	688	167,100
Martinique . . . . .	380	187,690
St. Pierre and Miquelon . . . . .	93	6,250
	<hr/> 48,011	<hr/> 383,750

## DANISH—

## Virgin Islands

St. Thomas . . . . .	23	12,000
St. John . . . . .	42	900
St. Croix or Santa Cruz . . . . .	84	23,000
	<hr/> 149	<hr/> 35,900

## DUTCH—

Surinam or Dutch Guiana . . . . .	46,060	64,372
Curaçao . . . . .	210	28,884
Bonaue . . . . .	95	4,524
Aruba . . . . .	69	8,955
St. Martin (part only) . . . . .	17	3,613
St. Eustace . . . . .	7	1,530
Saba . . . . .	5	2,093
	<hr/> 46,463	<hr/> 113,971

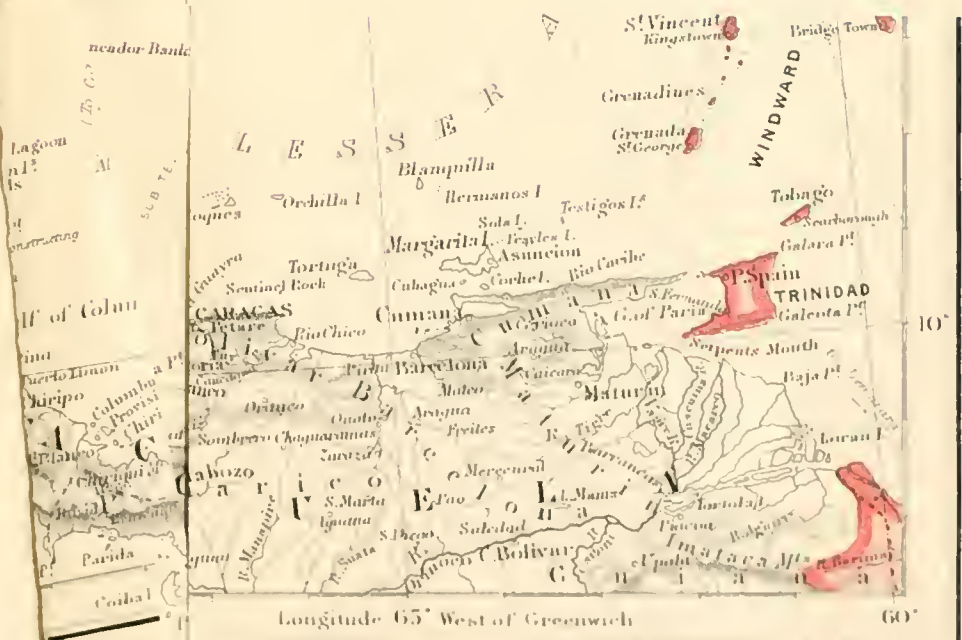
## UNITED STATES—

Cuba . . . . .	45,872	1,631,696
Porto Rico . . . . .	3,600	798,566
	<hr/> 49,472	<hr/> 2,430,262

## INDEPENDENT—

Republic of Haiti . . . . .	9,242	1,244,650
Republic of Santo Domingo . . . . .	20,596	500,000
	<hr/> 29,838	<hr/> 1,744,650

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Standard Geographical Establishment

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A map of the Guianas region, showing the borders of Venezuela, Brazil, and Dutch Guiana. The map includes major rivers such as the Rio Orinoco, Rio Parana, Rio Guayana, Rio Negro, Rio Essequibo, Rio Demerara, Rio Berbice, Rio Surinam, Rio Branco, Rio Negro, Rio Apurimac, Rio Parana, Rio Guayana, Rio Negro, Rio Essequibo, Rio Demerara, Rio Berbice, Rio Surinam, and Rio Branco. It also shows the cities of Georgetown, New Amsterdam, and Paramaribo. A scale bar indicates distances up to 100 miles.















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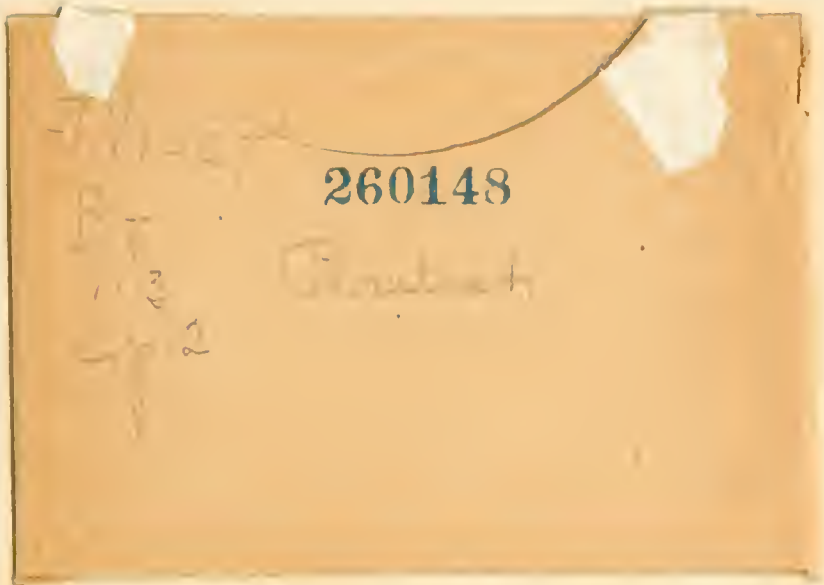
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